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The JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION



DECEMBER
1933

VOLUME IV
NUMBER 9

THE JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION is published to serve as the professional journal of the sixty-seven thousand instructors and administrative officers in the colleges, universities, and professional schools of the United States. Among the associate editors there are representatives from every department of academic responsibility in higher education. With their assistance the editorial staff seeks nine times a year to bring to its constituency reports of the most significant investigations in the instructional, administrative, personnel, and curricular problems in all branches of higher education.

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THE JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION is published monthly, except during July, August, and September, by the Ohio State University; 35 cents a copy; \$3.00 a year (Canada and foreign \$3.50). The address of the editorial and business office is Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

The Journal of Higher Education

DECEMBER, 1933 II

Conant and Dodds

BY W. H. COWLEY

Biographical Sketches of the New Presidents at Harvard and Princeton

TO PARAPHRASE Emerson, American higher education has attained its present status chiefly because of the impresses that have been made upon it by a small group of great leaders. Eliot, for example, found Harvard at the beginning of his administration a small New England college. When he retired forty years later, it had become one of the great universities of the world. He built up a powerful graduate faculty, he consolidated under a university plan the semi-independent professional schools that had grown up about Harvard, and through the elective system he expanded and liberalized undergraduate education.

Gilman, Harper, Wilson, Nott, Angell, Thompson, and a handful of others have similarly left their permanent impressions. Gilman made American higher education conscious of scholarship and research. Harper carried on the same program to even

greater success, and by the time he and Gilman and Eliot turned over their offices to their successors, the American college and university had become vastly different institutions from that of a half-century earlier. Meanwhile, Nott had demonstrated what remarkable things could be done with a small and under-endowed college; Wilson had introduced the much-discussed and now much-praised preceptorial method at Princeton; and Angell and Thompson had established the state university as the hope of the masses for higher education as well as the seat of research and scholarship.

These men have made it clear that the individuals who become the presidents of our leading universities control in large measure the destiny of American higher education. Many diverse pressures play upon every institution, large or small, but he who grapples with and directs these pressures largely determines down which

avenues money and energy and enthusiasm shall flow. And the more important the institution, the more the influence of its head upon other institutions of lesser status.

In this light the new presidents of Harvard and Princeton are proponent individuals in American higher education not only for the present but for the future. The programs that Mr. Conant initiates and supports at Harvard and the activities that Mr. Dodds emphasizes at Princeton will more than likely affect the work and even the personal lives, directly or indirectly, of vast numbers of college and university students and instructors for decades to come. The personalities and backgrounds of these men are, therefore, important, and this article is written to introduce them more adequately than they have been introduced to their colleagues in other institutions.

LIKE Charles William Eliot, James Bryant Conant comes to the presidency of Harvard from chemistry. Like Eliot, he is also a comparatively young man. Eliot became president of Harvard at the age of thirty-five, Conant at the age of forty. Conant was born in Dorchester, Massachusetts, on March 26, 1893, and took an A.B. degree at Harvard in 1913, a little more than two months after he had passed his twentieth birthday. He completed his undergraduate work in three years and was so successful that he was not only awarded a Phi Beta Kappa key, but also a John Harvard scholarship for graduate study. Three years later he took a Harvard

Ph.D. in chemistry, and immediately thereafter became an instructor in the college. In 1919 he was promoted to assistant professor, in 1925 to associate professor, in 1927 to professor, and in 1929 he became Sheldon Emery Professor of Organic Chemistry.

Meanwhile, during the war he enlisted in the Sanitary Corps as a lieutenant, soon after to be transferred to the Chemical Warfare Service with the rank of major. Stationed at Cleveland, he took command of a manufacturing plant for combatant gases. During the summer of 1924 he lectured in chemistry at the University of California; in 1925 he spent eight months in Germany studying methods of chemical instruction and research; and in 1927 he served as research associate at the California Institute of Technology.

Mr. Conant's success in research has been signalized by two medals which were awarded to him during the early part of 1932: the Charles F. Chandler Medal of Columbia University, and the William H. Nichols Medal of the New York section of the American Chemical Society. Both awards came for his research in the nature of chlorophyll, and especially because he discovered the essential nature of the chlorophyll molecule. In 1930 he was appointed one of the directors of the Rockefeller Institute.

President Conant has also been active as a writer in chemistry and as a consultant for business and industrial organizations in various parts of the United States. In 1920 he was one of the joint authors of *Practical Chemistry*, and in 1928 he

published his *Organic Chemistry*. He has also edited Volumes II and IX of *Organic Syntheses*.

During recent years he has been a strong advocate of co-operative research and an enemy of narrow specialization. Thus with Mr. P. W. Bridgeman, a Harvard physicist, he has worked upon the effects of high pressures on various substances; with Mr. F. H. Crawford, also a physicist, he has worked on certain phases of absorption spectra; with Mr. Edwin J. Cohn of the Harvard Medical School, he has worked on the nature of proteins; and with Mr. W. J. Crozier, director of the General Physiology Laboratory, on photosynthesis.

Personally, President Conant exemplifies the characteristics of the scientist. Only once before his election to the presidency of Harvard was he the subject of newspaper articles other than those having to do with his scientific investigations. That was in 1923 when he saved a girl from drowning in the Charles River.

AS Mr. Conant follows somewhat in the footsteps of his great predecessor, President Eliot, so President Harold Willis Dodds follows somewhat in the footsteps of President Wilson. Like Wilson, Dodds comes to the presidency of Princeton from political science, but unlike Wilson, he did not take his undergraduate work at Princeton. Fewer than half of the presidents of Princeton have been alumni, and Wilson and Dodds are the only two of the fifteen who have not been clergymen.

Mr. Dodds was born on June 28, 1889, and graduated from Grove City

College a few weeks before his twentieth birthday in 1909. His father was at that time professor of biblical literature at Grove City College, and since has become professor of biblical doctrine at Wooster College. Five years later Mr. Dodds took his Master's degree in political science at Princeton, and in 1917 his Doctor of Philosophy in the same subject at the University of Pennsylvania.

Both academically and administratively, Mr. Dodds's experience has been unusually diverse. From 1914 to 1916 he taught economics at Purdue University; from 1919-20 he was assistant professor of political science at Western Reserve University; and during the next few years he lectured in municipal government successively at the University of Pennsylvania, Swarthmore, New York University, and Princeton. He joined the faculty of Princeton in 1926 as assistant professor of politics, became professor a year later, and in 1930 he assumed the chairmanship of the Administrative Council of the School of Public Affairs which was that year established.

Concurrently, he became an expert not only in municipal government but also in state government and in Latin American affairs. In 1920 the National Municipal League elected him its secretary, which position he retained until 1928; and at the same time he edited the *National Municipal Review*, which work he continued until he accepted the presidency of Princeton last spring. He is recognized as one of the outstanding authorities in municipal government in the United States. He is

also the foremost authority on South American electoral laws. From 1922 to 1924 he served as electoral adviser to the Nicaraguan government under appointment by President Chamorro, on the nomination of Secretary of State Charles Evans Hughes, who was at that time president of the Municipal League. In 1925 he became technical adviser to the Tacna-Arica Plebiscitary Commission, and in 1928 became the chief adviser to the president of the National Board of Elections of Nicaragua. Because of his work in Central and South America, he has been called "the best-known North American in Central and South America."

At the same time he has devoted some of his energies to state government. Some years ago he was chairman of the Mercer County Planning Commission in New Jersey, and for two years he was a member of the New Jersey State Planning Commission. Last year, at the invitation of Governor A. Harry Moore, of New Jersey, he directed the work of twenty-one Princeton experts in surveying the New Jersey government. His group proposed economy measures by means of which \$14,000,000 might be saved to the state government of New Jersey. Meanwhile, in 1918 he published his only book, *Procedure in State Legislatures*.

ALTHOUGH Presidents Conant and Dodds come from diverse fields, they have several characteristics in common. Both, it will be observed, took their Bachelors' degrees much below the average age: Conant had just turned twenty, and

Dodds but three weeks before his twentieth birthday. Similarly, both have had numerous non-academic contacts. Conant has been a chemical consultant for various industrial organizations; Dodds, in his field of political science, has become a world authority in one field and a national authority in two others. Furthermore, both have had varied contacts with other educational institutions. Even though for but short periods, President Conant has been on the faculties of two other institutions, and President Dodds has been on the faculties of five other institutions. Such multiform experience, both academically and non-academically, has never been, heretofore, characteristic of the presidents of either Harvard or Princeton.

Interestingly enough, both Mr. Conant and Mr. Dodds very closely fit the averages for university presidents tabulated by Mr. Gowin of New York University in 1919, and reported in his book *The Executive and His Control of Men*. Professor Gowin discovered that the average height of 61 university presidents whom he studied was 5 feet 10.7 inches: President Conant is 5 feet 10.5 inches and President Dodds 5 feet 11 inches. Professor Gowin also discovered that the average weight for university presidents was 181.6 pounds, but the average age he discovered to be 51.8 years. This very likely accounts for the somewhat lower weights of Mr. Conant and Mr. Dodds. Mr. Conant weighs 150 pounds and Mr. Dodds 175 pounds. By the time they reach the average age of the presidents studied by Mr.

Gowin, it is not unlikely that they will reach the average weight.

These superficial comparisons are given merely to help readers visualize the physical bearings of two men who are likely to be major figures in American higher education for some years to come. That they are far from average in other respects is indicated by the facts already listed about their careers thus far.

ALL college executives who attain to fame achieve greatness because of some particular program or programs which they espouse. Eliot, as pointed out, sponsored the elective system and the transformation of Harvard from a college to a university. For these two achievements he will always be famous. Wilson, similarly, made his name chiefly because of his promotion of the preceptorial method of instruction. Lowell devoted his energies to the improvement of undergraduate instruction and undergraduate life, putting his emphasis upon comprehensive examinations, the tutorial system, freshman dormitories, and the house plan. As with these three outstanding presidents, so, also, with all great college executives.

It yet remains to be seen into which channels Presidents Conant and Dodds will direct their energies. Recently, it has been pointed out that during the Lowell administration Harvard lost its pre-eminence in graduate instruction and research. A survey of the studies made in 1910 by J. McKeen Cattell and in 1925 by R. M. Hughes, at that time president of Miami University, bears out that

contention. Cattell rated Harvard 146 for the number of eminent scientists on its faculty as against 94.6 for the University of Chicago, its closest rival. He also credited Harvard with having the strongest departments of physics, botany, zoölogy, physiology, and pathology as against two leading departments in sciences at Chicago—mathematics and astronomy.¹ Hughes, in his study, on the other hand, discovered that in 1925 Chicago had eight leading departments as against Harvard's seven, and taking into consideration the seconds, thirds, and fourths, Chicago also led Harvard by a slight margin.² Hughes's study included all graduate departments as opposed to Cattell's concentration upon scientific departments.

It may be that considerations of this sort will suggest to President Conant that during his administration he concentrate his attention upon research and scholarship. Many members of the Harvard faculty would welcome such a program. On the other hand, it would be most unfortunate if the significant improvements made in undergraduate education under the Lowell régime should be neglected. There is no organic reason why both should not be fostered simultaneously.

Hughes discovered that in 1925 Princeton had no leading departments, but stood second in the classics, third in mathematics, and fourth

¹Cattell, J. McKeen. "A Further Statistical Study of American Men of Science," *Science*, XXXI (November 11, 1910), pp. 672-88.

²Hughes, R. M. *A Study of the Graduate Schools of America*. Oxford, Ohio: Miami University Press, 1925. 32 pp.

in French, physics, and astronomy. Hughes, however, remarked that

only one graduate school in the country, Princeton, is making an earnest, serious effort to give to its men something of the social training and broad sympathy and interest in all departments of learning which a gentleman and a scholar should have. I believe those of you who have visited the Princeton Graduate School and are familiar with the life there, and those who have employed graduates of this school, have felt that Princeton has made a real contribution to the field of graduate teaching through the life of the graduate college at Princeton.

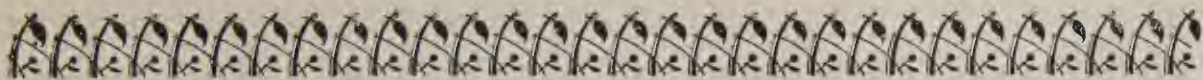
It is to be hoped that President Dodds will continue in this tradition, the while furthering the notable work of Princeton in preparing public servants through its graduate work in political science. But most of all, his imagination should be focused upon the undergraduate college. Therein lies not only his major

responsibility but his greatest opportunity. Work with and for undergraduates more than any other division of higher education needs alert and progressive leadership. The president of Princeton, because of the prestige of his position, can influence undergraduate education throughout the entire country.

More than likely neither Mr. Conant nor Mr. Dodds has determined upon his major policies. Both seemed to be as much surprised at their appointments as was the public at large, and programs take time to evolve. That they will never be announced after the fashion of political executives goes without saying, but a good many laymen as well as a large number of educators will watch with interest what philosophies are put into practice and what courses of action are developed at Cambridge and Princeton during the next few years.

[Vol. IV, No. 9]





A Bird's-Eye View of the Organization of One University

By J. B. SPEER

The Development of Functional Organization in the University of Montana

AT THE time the State University of Montana was established with a staff of five professors, including the president, there was full opportunity for face-to-face leadership of the president.¹ The organization of this small group was as simple as that of a family, although the duties or functions with which they were concerned were not unlike the problems which confront the more complex organization of the present time.

All members of the faculty were included in the president's staff or council. All participated in the discussions which concerned nearly all problems of administration as well as details of management. Even decisions as to the guidance of individual students were made by the entire group. All engaged in the primary function of the institution, teaching, except a young lady who was employed to look after the small library. The youngest professor served as secretary of the faculty, a duty incidental to his task of instruction.

¹This article is a summary of a much more detailed discussion of the functional organization of the University of Montana which may be obtained, with a copy of the organization chart, in mimeographed form from the author.

The earliest indication of the beginnings of functional organization was the establishment of committees. The segregation of functions by committees was sufficiently marked five years after the opening of the University for listing in the catalogue of committees on "graduate work," "discipline," "grading and classification," and "examinations." A year later committees on "student affairs" and "athletics" appeared. A survey of the forty or more different types of committees listed in the catalogues since the beginning of the institution in 1895 discloses the fact that many of them preceded the appointment of a functional officer who succeeded to the functions of the committee. Soon after a dean of men was appointed the committee on student affairs was discontinued. A committee on physical plant was soon succeeded by a designated superintendent of buildings and grounds. The appointment of committees for special functional service from the membership of the entire staff, which are soon succeeded by individual specialists, or functional officers, is a typical development of functional organization.

When members of the faculty were

provided with assistants, the beginnings of departmental organization units appeared. The senior professor became a line officer, or a sub-executive. The various departments of instruction, as they developed, are a type of organization quite distinct from the functional divisions.

IN TAKING a bird's-eye view of the University organization chart, the main divisions which attract our attention are first, instruction; second, higher control or administration, including the determination of policy; third, plans, preparation, and equipment for instruction; fourth, auxiliary or facilitating services. The function of finance rests largely with the legislature, and the function of distribution, or placement of graduates, is of relatively minor importance in the University organization.

The departments of instruction are directly engaged in the primary function of the organization, namely, instruction, and are held responsible for the discharge of this primary function. The line of authority runs directly to the departments. Orders always go from top to bottom; there is little reliance on co-ordinate departments. Certainty and stability of control are thereby insured.

A generation ago the departmental type of organization predominated. The head of an instructional department, who was directly subordinate to the chief executive, not only managed the instructional activities, but looked after the upkeep of the building in which his department was accommodated. He was his own purchasing agent; he did not rely

on the functional service given by a registrar's office.

The departmental leader should be the first to realize that his administrative duties divert his energies from the service for which he is trained, in which he is primarily interested, and in which he should ordinarily take his chief pride of accomplishment. In a predominantly departmental type of organization he has too little time for study, research, and teaching. He has, instead, become a line officer who spends too much time in giving, transmitting, and executing orders.

Unfortunately, the advocates of functional organization have apparently failed adequately to emphasize the fact that the services of functional divisions are for the purpose of aiding the departmental units, or the line; that, after all, the department is held accountable for the end results. A breakdown of departmental authority and responsibility is to be avoided even though there may be a redistribution of departmental territory.

There are at the present time in the State University twenty-four departments of instruction each supposedly covering a separate field of knowledge or at least technique in the application of knowledge. There are two additional departments of instruction which completely overlap the other departments, namely, summer session and correspondence study. Each department is directly under the control of the chief executive; there are a few well-established committees which co-ordinate the curricular activities of the departments, especially on graduation and on graduate study.

Those parts of the management which enter into the final determination of policy, supreme control of execution of policy, and the continuous co-ordination and control of the several departments may be designated as "the administration." Although in the popular mind the function of administration is almost synonymous with the chief executive, nevertheless, a careful scrutiny of the organization pictures indicates that there are certain principles controlling the function of administration, and that the chief executive does not act merely at his pleasure. The chief executive in exercising his line functions of decision and command is usually bound by tradition, and frequently by formal constitutionalism, to consult advisers. The function of advice to the executive, including information and supervision, is known as staff service or counsel, and in actual practice is participated in by every individual in the organization who is not a mere automaton.

The term "staff" implies something to lean on, as is indeed the case with the executive in his relations with his staff. The advisory council, or staff of some sort, is as old in history as organization itself, and the staff function of collective wisdom is almost universal in organization. It is said that no advance in human knowledge will ever exclude the leader's need for counsel of elemental human wisdom, and especially of collective wisdom, in the making of all important decisions. Nevertheless, it must be kept in mind always that responsibility for decision and command is the function of the

executive, and this responsibility as such may not be shifted to the staff. It is the method of arriving at decision and transmitting the commands in which the staff plays its part.

In the small beginnings when face-to-face leadership was possible, it was natural and easy for the president to consult with the faculty, both in formal meetings and informally, on all problems in which the University was concerned. There was full opportunity for collective wisdom. As the faculty increased in numbers, the opportunity for consultation with each member of the staff decreased, and deliberations in formal meetings became of less value. The president, therefore, came to rely more and more on the informal advice of members of the faculty whose counsel he sought, except for special problems for which special functional committees were appointed.

A SIGNIFICANT development in staff organization came about in this institution a dozen or more years ago. It was stimulated, on the one hand, because of the president's recognition of the value of establishing formal channels for consultation with the faculty on general administrative problems; on the other hand, the development was largely due to the attitude of the "left" who believed that the university administration should be sufficiently representative of the teaching staff to merit the establishment of formal, or constitutional, channels of communication with the executive. The president recognized this method as a means of obtaining advice, communicating with

the faculty concerning problems of administration, and of establishing good will between the administration and teaching staff. As a result, the committee on budget and university policy was established as a functional division of the faculty, whose personnel was to be distributed among the major groupings of departments in order that the committee might be more representative.

This committee functions as a staff for informative and advisory purposes. It is an imposed staff, since the membership is elective rather than appointive. The committee is effective for purposes of counsel on general administrative problems, or "collective wisdom," as a channel whereby all have the right to be heard. The committee does not usurp the functions of the executive. The committee is not effective for the staff function of expert advice and supervision, mainly because functional officers and specialists have no place in its membership.

Another staff service which became formally established about the time the committee on budget and university policy was set up is known as the "service committee." It is composed of three members of the faculty, one elected by the faculty, one appointed by the president, and one appointed by the chancellor; its function is to pass on the merits of appeals of members of the staff from the decisions of the executive concerning their appointments or employment. All contracts of appointment provide for the functioning of this committee. The service committee therefore provides for constitutional and even a

contractual method of adjudicating the claims of a member of the staff.

The remainder of the staff of the president is less formal. The vice-president substitutes for the president in much the same way as the vice-president of the United States functions, and yet is not a member of the cabinet. The wise executive seeks legal advice frequently, which is a staff service. Representatives of alumni and student organizations give information and advice for the guidance of the executive; indeed, at one period in the history of the University a self-perpetuating secret honor society composed of students, alumni, and faculty was an exceedingly important council to the executive.

The heads of functional departments give a more or less informal staff service to the president. There are deans of men and of women, registrar and business manager, business director of residence halls, maintenance engineer, librarian, director of health service, graduate manager of athletics, all with direct delegation of authority from the president. As line officers the functions of these officers are well established and are somewhat formal, but as staff advisers they have little responsibility. The functions of the business manager or comptroller are fixed to some extent by regulations of state departments; he is the custodian of funds, the auditing officer whose service constitutes a continuous examination of the business. His staff service is primarily that of information and not advice and supervision, and even in the field of accounting and auditing,

as for instance, timekeeping or inventorying, his activities are likely to be restricted because of the prevailing departmental independence. He is not associated with other co-ordinate officers in a formal staff capacity. The business office is, therefore, primarily a service or facilitation department. Few committees have been established to co-ordinate the activities of the various functional officers, resulting in a defect in the organization structure which may be easily corrected in the future.

A list of staff councils to the president includes also a local executive board, of which the president is chairman and who with two citizens appointed by the governor constitutes the membership. Formerly, this board was a very considerable factor in the administration of the University, particularly in financial matters; it has declined in relative importance, however, since the establishment of the chancellor system and of various functional officers of the University and of the state, particularly the business manager, maintenance engineer, state purchasing agent, and state accountant.

FINALLY, a staff is of relatively less importance where there is face-to-face leadership. The chancellor system in Montana frees the president of much of the responsibility of outside relations ordinarily borne by the chief executive of an institution, and leaves him more opportunity for intimate contacts with his staff. And some leaders do not require a co-ordinated staff service, which is a development of comparatively recent

times, made necessary by high specialization and functional organization.

The planning and preparation function in the University has not overshadowed other divisions, although it is about to be thrust upon us by the unfortunate functioning of finance. We do have formally established committees on curriculum and schedule (of classes) which are in the spotlight now that the budget is being overhauled. The function of plant extension worked well as long as the function of finance was in good condition; similarly, the library, a functional department serving the line departments, has been alert to its opportunities. Provision for laboratory equipment has remained within the departmental organization heretofore, although there are possibilities for co-ordinating provisions for laboratory needs of the various instructional departments into a functional activity. The establishment of a central chemistry storeroom is a type of such a specialized division.

In as much as the provision for teaching should be considered the prime factor in developing the University, functionalization of staff personnel ought to be a chief division of planning and preparation; this function should be secondary only to the curriculum. Our physical plant has engaged the services of a nationally known architect, but the selection of staff is frequently left within the departments where there is a high degree of specialization in knowledge but little experience or few facilities for the selection, training, and supervision of staff.

The area of facilitation in our

chart of organization includes student personnel, student groups, the business or fiscal accounting office, various service departments including maintenance of physical plant, the residence halls. Committees on public relations, publications and publicity, public exercises are a group of facilitating agencies which might well be further functionalized and more carefully co-ordinated. The functions of inspection and results control, of statistics and comparison are scattered throughout the organization structure in such a manner as largely to escape the perception of the organization analyst.

The various offices and divisions primarily concerned with student personnel are the dean of men, the dean of women, the health director, and the persons concerned with vocational advice, mental hygiene, and job placement, all of which are at various stages of functional development. There are co-ordinating committees known as the deans' conference, committee on advisers, student-loan committee. As in many other universities, the student personnel division of the University is a poorly co-ordinated area of the organization. It is to be hoped that at least as a by-product of the vast amount of literature on the subject of student-personnel methods improved organization for the application of the knowledge in this field will soon take place.

OUR chart shows that committees are still an important factor in the organization. Committees have the advantage of collective wisdom,

are popularly supposed to be a democratic form of organization because of the distribution of authority and responsibility and interest among as many individuals as possible. Committees, however, have the defects of legislative bodies—division of responsibility, logrolling, compromise. To follow the tradition that a majority of a show of hands on any question discussed in a group must be taken as a final disposition of a problem is frequently a violation of good principles of management. Administrative responsibility cannot always be shifted in that way, but in a functional organization committees are indispensable for purposes of co-ordination. There are places on our chart where co-ordinating committees might well be established. Such committees should also take care of functions on the border line of various functional departments, which may otherwise be given quite inadequate attention. Student employment would be an illustration of the value of such a co-ordinating committee in our present organization where student employment is not highly centralized (or functionalized).

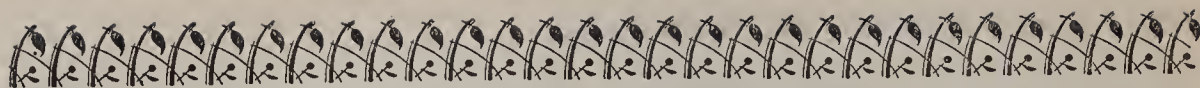
It is said that there is theoretically no limit to the size of an organization, but that every delegation of authority puts an additional strain on co-ordination. It is necessary for unity of action of even two individuals, but we have yet to realize that co-ordination which is necessary at the head must also be continued down through the various limbs of the organization. Co-ordination is based on authority, not necessarily autocratic. Both community of inter-

est and of understanding is the basis of true co-ordination. A popular writer recently went so far as to say that democracy is voluntary co-operation. Co-ordination involves the "right to be heard" and the "right to know" on the part of the management. Submission to the "law of the situation," when both subordinate and superior take orders from a higher law, as it were, is the ultimate ideal of co-ordination. The facts alone, as presented by the experts and considered by the ultimate authority, finally decide each question. Co-ordination has been called "the great organ of synthesis."

The office as a main functional division of the University is not indicated on our chart, although many writers classify the office as co-ordinate with the functions of finance, production, and the like. It is true that the office is devoted to the direction and co-ordination of the various activities of an institution, but the office is more of an agency or medium, a center of service and means of control, rather than a function of the enterprise. It is a place where the records may be concentrated for easy reference and use. The closer the integration of the offices the more easily will a "service of understanding" be attained. Provision for the best type

of service of the office requires a functional officer, frequently called the "office manager." In institutions of our size this function can ordinarily be best discharged by allocating it to the business office.

Although the office, or the secretariat, as the general-office organization is frequently called, is an indispensable agency of co-ordination, nevertheless, devotion to a cause or a doctrine is the indispensable quality without which an organization cannot hope to survive indefinitely. It is worthy of note that the founders of the greatest organization the world has ever known first formally completed their organization and then, after they had been "with one accord in one place," they became so filled with enthusiasm that every man heard the other in his own language. Should such an ideal state of understanding occur on a university campus it may be that strangers would, as of old, suspect that we were full of new wine. It is not without the realm of possibility that some day all of us will be so thoroughly imbued with the spirit of science, of belief in the efficacy of facts, of devotion to our mission of increasing and transmitting the learning of the ages that our organization structure will be discernible only by its aspect of voluntary co-operation. [Vol. IV, No. 9]



Class-Size

By H. H. REMMERS

A Reply to Mr. Charters' Criticism of Class-Size Experiments

IN A recent article Mr. Charters in commenting on experiments dealing with the class-size variable criticizes these experiments as follows:

At the college level, the figures show in general that the size of class is not an influential factor if the examinations are assumed to be valid and if the teaching procedure is not varied between the larger and smaller classes. These, however, are two large assumptions. The examinations were predominantly factual. They did not test all objectives, or perhaps the important objectives, claimed by teachers. In this sense the examinations were not valid. Furthermore, one of the reasons for small classes is to permit teachers to use more intensive methods of instruction than is possible in large classes. Hence, the case has not yet been substantially made for large classes.¹

Since certain of the experiments with which the Division of Educational Reference at Purdue University is concerned involve among others the class-size variable,² Mr. Charters' strictures require analysis and refuta-

tion if the conclusions drawn by Mr. Hudelson, at Minnesota; Mr. Brown, at Iowa State Teachers College; and others as well as the experiments at Purdue University are to stand.

Taking first the case of the extensive investigations of Mr. Hudelson reported in his *Class Size at the College Level* it should be pointed out that if the examinations were not valid it was because the teachers in the various courses did not make them so, since their own examinations were for the most part used as they constructed them; they were not constructed by an outside agency. It is fair to assume, therefore, that whatever objectives they had were measured with the same degree of validity as they had been prior to the experiments. This criticism, therefore, turns out to be an indictment of the validity of examinations in general rather than of the experimental conclusions. The burden of proof for the existence of other desirable but unmeasured outcomes would then seem to rest with the critics of the conclusions. I should readily agree with Mr. Charters that ideally college examinations leave much to be desired, and the measurement of desirable outcomes in addition to those generally measured is

¹"Co-ordination of Instruction," JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION, IV (March, 1933), p. 129.

²*Learning, Effort and Attitudes as Affected by Three Methods of Instruction in Elementary Psychology*. Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University, 1933. (Bulletin of Purdue University, Studies in Higher Education XXI) Also "Lecture-demonstration vs. Individual Laboratory Work in Elementary Engineering Physics" and "Lecture-demonstration vs. Individual Laboratory Work in Elementary College Chemistry" (Studies in progress).

an important goal. But this is beside the point.

In the case of the current experiments at Purdue University which involve the class-size variable as well as a previous study the same comment holds. The instructors used such measures as they judged would test the students' achievement of their objectives. The experimental procedure neither detracted from nor added to the validity.³

That the tests in mathematics were not primarily "factual"—waiving for the present the criterion of "factualness" of a test—is evidenced by the fact that the Department of Mathematics at Purdue University has been rather consistently and firmly opposed to the use of objectively scored tests and examinations on the same ground that Mr. Charters objects to the examinations in the studies reported by Mr. Hudelson and others; they were in their judgment too factual. What they wished to measure was the student's ability to think in terms of his factual knowledge; that is, to apply this factual knowledge to the solution of significant mathematical problems. For this reason the measures used in the experimental comparisons were chiefly those constructed by the instructors according to the aims of the Department. The ratio of "problem" examination time to objective testing time was about nine to one. Both types of measures yielded the same experimental results—a slight

³Remmers, H. H.; Hadley, Lawrence; and Long, J. K. *Learning, Effort, and Attitudes as Affected by Class Size in Beginning College Engineering Mathematics*. Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University, 1932. (Bulletin of Purdue University, Studies in Higher Education XIX)

advantage for the larger classes, especially for the weaker students in these larger classes. It is to be remembered that whatever "objectives claimed by teachers" were involved, they were measured according to the best ability of experienced teachers of mathematics.

The second assumption which Mr. Charters criticizes was specifically not made in our experiments. In fact, the exact opposite of this assumption was made and followed. A quotation from the study just cited will make this clear:

The authors of this report did not conceive of the experiment as one in which *all* factors except class size were to be constant. On the contrary, *the aim was to vary teaching techniques and procedures in such fashion as seemed best calculated to produce the best results in terms of student achievement.*⁴

One of the two instructors concerned in the experiment in commenting on his large section wrote:

Personally I have never thought of this work as an experiment. This was a group of young men who were presumably spending their time and money to get a foundation in mathematics. If they were mentally equipped to gain the knowledge, it was my duty to be sure that each man got his money's worth.⁵

IT SHOULD be obvious from the foregoing that neither Mr. Charters' two assumptions invalidate the studies which he criticizes. Let me repeat that the search for ways of measuring objectives of value but not yet adequately measured, and the teaching

⁴Remmers, *et al.*; *op. cit.*, p. 18. The italics are mine.

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 11.

techniques to produce them, is an aim on which I cordially agree with Mr. Charters. If, as, and when such measuring instruments are invented, they should be applied along with those now accepted to the evaluation of the class-size variable. In the meantime the conclusions from class-size experiments, using the measures upon which competent teachers agree, are valid until experimental evidence based upon demonstrably superior measures contravert the consensus of what is now a fairly large body of experimental findings.

One further thought is perhaps worth mentioning in connection with the entire issue of teaching techniques. It is just possible that there is a danger of losing sight of the fact

that in the educative process learning as well as teaching goes on, and that, given reasonably competent and adequately motivated students wide variations in teaching techniques and procedures might produce similar results. I have at least a suspicion that the widely accepted educational philosophy which places the college or university, and more particularly the teacher, *in loco parentis* has tended to place the responsibility for the students' learning upon the instructor's teaching. If my suspicion is correct, this educational philosophy as applied tends to prolong the intellectual infancy of students otherwise mature. Here is at least the implication of one important educational objective which should be isolated and measured.

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A Reply to Mr. Remmers' Criticism

By W. W. CHARTERS

MR. REMMERS expresses tersely the basis of my apprehension about class-size studies when he agrees with me that "ideally college examinations leave much to be desired." In the class-size studies we find definite conclusions drawn, and as an aftermath we know that those conclusions are widely used by educational administrators in increasing the size of classes, and that they are defended by many professors of education. Yet, admittedly, the examinations by which the experimental

results are measured are not valid—certainly not as valid as they should be in view of the enormous effect they are having upon educational administration. To say that the responsibility for constructing more valid tests rests with the critics is not a substantial defense. The only defensible position to take, it seems to me, is that investigators in the class-size area should perfect valid measuring instruments before drawing conclusions in which refined measurement is the crucial element.

[Vol. IV, No. 9]



Federal Status of Higher Education

By ALEXANDER BRODY

Federal Recognition of State Higher Education as a Function of Government

THAT the state is exercising an essential function of government in maintaining a higher educational system is well established by a long line of state court decisions.¹ The recognition of the governmental status of state institutions for higher education by the Federal Government was presented for the first time in two recent cases before the United States Board of Tax Appeals² and the Supreme Court of the United States³ (appeal from the United States Custom Court⁴). A fundamental principle of the American system of dual sovereignty is that state property and state instrumentalities in the administration of its government cannot be taxed by the Federal Government.⁵ Is higher education such a function of government as to bring a state university within the principle of immunity of state govern-

mental instrumentalities from Federal taxation?⁶

The University of Illinois, a state institution, imported from abroad testing machinery and optical instruments to be used for educational purposes. The customs officers insisted that the University pay the usual import duty. In taking a protest to the United States Customs Courts, the University authorities argued that the imposition of an import duty or tax on the property of the state university is equivalent to a tax against the state and is therefore illegal. In delivering the opinion, Justice Young took the position that state activity in maintaining a higher educational system is not a necessary function of government, but that at most it is a public purpose assumed by the state in its proprietary or private capacity. Hence, it was not the property of the state which was being taxed, since in the conduct and operation of the University the state was not exercising a necessary governmental func-

¹*In re Royer*, 123 Cal. 614 (1899); *Sterling v. Regents of University*, 110 Mich. 369 (1896); *Hartigan v. Board of Regents*, 49 W.Va. 15 (1901); *State v. Irwin*, 14 Wyo. 318 (1905).

²*Sappington v. Commissioner of Internal Revenue*, 25 U.S.B.T.A.R. 1385 (1932).

³*University of Illinois v. United States*, 289 U.S. 48 (1933).

⁴*University of Illinois v. United States*, 54 T.D. 319 (1929).

⁵*Collector v. Day*, 11 Wall (U.S.) 113 (1870).

⁶The exemption of the university from state taxation is predicated on the fact that it is an organic part of the state government (*Auditor v. University of Michigan*, 83 Mich. 467 (1890)).

tion. Justice Young was able to reach this conclusion only after he had limited the term "governmental function" to those functions actually engaged in by the states at the time of the adoption of the Constitution.

Up and beyond the time when the Constitution was originally adopted, higher education was entirely within private enterprise. And it does not appear that there was any failure upon the part of the privately endowed colleges to meet the requirements of the republic for higher education. Indeed, then as now, they furnished a better quality than that furnished by the state institutions, and if they had been allowed to occupy the higher educational field without interference or competition from state institutions, they might now be furnishing instruction at the same or even lower cost than that furnished to the student at the state colleges. Indeed, it is quite possible that such would have been the fact when one considers that private endowments have been greatly discouraged by the support of colleges by state taxation. There is less urge to bestow money for higher education when funds for such education are available from the state almost without limit.

The fact that privately organized colleges have continued to exist even to flourish in spite of the powerful competition of state institutions backed by liberal appropriations of public money, is proof of the fact that it is not necessary for the state to furnish low tuition or cheap education of college grade to the people, and, is proof of the fact, that it was not necessary for the state to invade the field of higher education, a field not occupied by the states at the time the Constitution was adopted.⁷

⁷On the authority of this case the court overruled the protests of the University of Minnesota and the University of Michigan to import scientific instruments free of duty (55 T.D.1007; 56 T. D. 707).

THE United States Board of Tax Appeals refused to follow the reasoning and conclusion of Justice Young in its decision of the question of the power of the Federal Government to impose an income tax on the salary of a state-university instructor. The Board held in the negative. The petitioner in the case, Ridgley Sappington, was an instructor employed by the University of Maryland. He contended that the University was a state institution and that as an agency of the state the Federal Government had no power to impose a tax that would interfere with its operation. This contention the Board upheld.⁸

The Commissioner of Internal Revenue had contended that even though the University be held as an instrumentality of the state, still the petitioner was liable for the tax imposed for the reason that in its conduct and operation the state was not exercising an essential function of government. In support of his contention the Commissioner cited the opinion in the Illinois case which held that education is a proprietary, not a governmental, function and that at the time of the Constitution education was a matter of private, not public, concern. With this contention the Board disagreed.

Proprietary functions have not been extended to public corporation by means of which the state carries out its educational policies. While such institutions may, and do hold property, they hold it as a public trust and subject to the

⁸Briefs in the case were filed by sixteen states and approximately forty universities, and also by the executive committee of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities.

plenary control of the state government. This distinction has been recognized almost universally and the authorities generally hold that the dissemination of education by state instrumentalities is not a proprietary but an essential governmental function of the state.

The Board further pointed out that the term "governmental function" is not static, but is one which must keep pace with the growing complexity of economic exigencies:

What a governmental function is depends not upon what was so considered at the time the Constitution was adopted, but upon the necessity of exercising the function today. Whether it is of general public concern is the criterion by which to determine what is a governmental function. Public needs vary with the changing conditions under which mankind finds itself. New scientific discoveries, new economic situations, new means of transportation, and increased complexities in social relations, cause new governmental functions to become necessary to the welfare of society.

When the citizens were given the ballot and so placed in control of government, a new need for the education of all persons was manifest. This need was met by establishing public schools which admittedly serve a public interest. It is obvious that law, engineering, teaching, pharmacy, no less than medicine, require trained individuals if our modern complex society is to survive. In fact today there is as great a need of persons with wide training in these fields as there is in the rudiments of education. This has been recognized by France and Germany who have placed all their universities upon a public basis. It has been recognized by the states in the establishment of state universities, and it has been recognized by the United States in the aid it

has given to the state universities and in the higher educational requirements it has demanded from public servants.

The Board further took issue with the contention supported by the Illinois case that the field of higher education was not occupied by the states at the time the Constitution was adopted:

It can not be denied that before the Constitution was adopted, the several colonies had recognized that the maintenance and operation of schools of both elementary and higher grade at public expense was a proper function of government. Moreover a review of congressional policy from the ordinance of 1787, through the various land grants acts beginning in 1820 to the Purnell Act of 1925, discloses that the Federal Government has always regarded education as a proper and essential function of the states, and has repeatedly appropriated Federal properties and funds for the support of state educational institutions.

The Board held that the petitioner is an employee of the state engaged in carrying out an essential governmental function and compensation paid to him by the state for such service is exempt from Federal taxation.

IN MARCH, 1933, the Supreme Court of the United States rendered its decision in the appeal from the Customs Court in the Illinois case. The University of Illinois had reiterated its position that the levying of customs duties is equivalent to a tax and that as such it is subject to the constitutional limitation that the Congress may not levy a tax so as to impose a direct burden upon an instrumentality of a state used

in the discharge of a governmental function. The highest court rejected this contention. Chief Justice Hughes based his decision on the ground that the principle of duality in our system of government does not touch the authority of Congress in the regulation of foreign commerce. The duties were assessed, it was held, pursuant to the exclusive and plenary power of the Federal Government to regulate commerce.

There is thus no violation of the principle which petitioner (the University of Illinois) claims, for there is no encroachment on the power of the state as none exists with respect to the subject over which the Federal power has been exerted. . . . It is for Congress to decide to what extent, if at all, the state and their instrumentalities shall be relieved of the payment of duties on imported articles.

Since the duties were levied as an incident to the power to regulate commerce, and not as one enacted in the exercise of the taxing power of

Congress, the court declared that the University was properly required to pay customs duties on scientific apparatus imported for use in one of its educational departments.

Technically, the status of state institutions for higher education must be regarded as still unsettled as far as the Federal Government is concerned, for the highest court did not pass directly upon the question of whether the state is performing a governmental function in carrying on higher educational activities. From the fact, however, that Chief Justice Hughes has based his decision on a distinction between the imposition of tariff duties and the imposition of taxes, it follows, by implication, that on the question of taxes the Court would have held a state university, as a government instrumentality, to be immune from Federal imposition. Certain it is that Justice Hughes's decision renders the principles enunciated by Justice Young in the Illinois case, entirely uncontrolling.

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Student Health Service

By N. W. McGEE

The Provisions for Student Health Service in the State Colleges of Iowa

IN general, there are at least three policies in vogue for the administration of student health services. The simplest of these policies is commonly considered an emergency arrangement for the prevention of prolonged absences due to illness. Under this plan ill students may report, at designated hours, to the college physician for medical treatment. Indeed, this might be called a student "sick service" rather than a health service since the emphasis is placed upon the curing of ill students instead of preventing diseases. As the need for prevention is realized, a second policy develops by which the emphasis is placed upon prevention rather than the curative aspects. Moreover, the student health service is then made responsible for all activities pertaining to the prevention as well as the cure of maladies among the students. A third policy recognizes and emphasizes preventive measures and places responsibility for such on the student health service, but goes a step further by incorporating a program of health education into its activity.

The health service in the state colleges of Iowa embraces the three policies set forth. Iowa State Teachers College furnishes a simple type

of student-health administration, but the State University has a highly integrated health organization and comprehensive service, while the Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts emphasizes health education in addition to the usual public-health activities.

The emergency health service at Iowa State Teachers College provides a physical examination for all Freshmen on entering the College. When physical defects are discovered through these examinations, the student is advised to have the necessary treatment by his family physician. A small percentage, according to the director, have their defects cared for through the health service on the campus. Furthermore, the student health service provides medical and surgical attention for the students when necessary, but students are referred to their home physician whenever possible.

No formal inspectional service is maintained by the student health service. Inspections are made at the suggestion of the dean of men or the dean of women. The department of general administration has charge of the inspectional service. The service is of an emergency character; if no emergency arises, the student health

service does not act. Since there has been no emergency due to contaminated foods, no inspections of dormitories or eating houses are made by the health service.

Administration of the student health service at Iowa State Teachers College is subject to the control of a health committee consisting of seven faculty members most closely associated with the problems of health. Actual administration, however, is delegated to a director who is a physician, a woman physician, and three nurses.

All students pay a health-service fee of \$1.25 each term of three months. This insures routine examination, emergency treatment at the dispensary, and four days' free care in the hospital, should hospitalization on the campus be necessary.

THE University of Iowa maintains a University Department of Health which embraces the major aspects of public-health administration. This is a new venture in the University as the Department was established and used for the first time during the fall of 1930. While attention was given to ill students prior to 1930, the service was not so inclusive, nor was it integrated into a unified department as at the present time. The University Department of Health is similar in its organization to the health service of a city. A University Board of Health was created at the time of establishing the University Department of Health, and can be considered a fundamental part of the University health administration. The Board formulates rules

and regulations within which the Department operates. Once each month the Board receives a report from the University Department of Health, and authorizes action to be taken by the administrative staff.

The work of the Department is divided into four functional units: inspection, control of communicable diseases, life extension, and student out-patient service. Each division carries on a specialized service for which its personnel and equipment are selected.

The personnel of the University Department of Health is drawn from the Department of Hygiene and Preventive Medicine. The director of the former is also the head of the latter. Furthermore, each division is under the supervision of a chief; the majority of these are professors in the Department.

Inspection of food, milk, and water supply on the campus is allotted to the division of inspection. Likewise, swimming pools are under the constant supervision of that division. All investigations of communicable diseases on the campus, however, are intrusted to the division for the control of contagious disease. The chief of this division assumes responsibility for control measures when a disease is discovered on the campus.

The life-extension division is devoted primarily to health examinations. All Freshman students undergo an examination on entrance; but the health examination is optional with upperclassmen. The examination for Freshmen includes eye, ear, nose, throat, and chest. At the time of the examination, each unprotected stu-

dent is vaccinated against smallpox, unless the student refuses. Moreover, all food-handlers on the University campus are examined. Each food-handler must receive a permit from the Department of Health before handling foods within the confines of the University. A rather complete laboratory examination is a prerequisite for a food-handler's permit and includes tests for diphtheria, venereal diseases, and undulant fever.

The student out-patient division is the curative portion of the Department. This service is maintained exclusively for University employees, students, and nurses. Ill students or nurses who cannot be properly treated at the dispensary are given hospital care at the minimum rate. Students and nurses have two alternatives in case of minor ills: they may call at the out-patient division, and there obtain such treatment as the examining physician deems necessary, or medical treatment may be provided at the room of the patient. If the former method is selected, the patient pays \$.50 for each disease treated; one payment is all that is required for the treatment for a given ailment unless hospitalization is necessary; \$1.00 for each call is charged for medical service given in the patient's room. The out-patient division provides a purely optional service. The University Department of Health makes such service available, but if other medical care is desired, the student is free to make such a selection.

During the first year, ending June, 1931, the department performed 18,567 services. The inspection divi-

sion made 3,103 inspections; the division for the control of communicable diseases investigated 60 cases; the life-extension division rendered 8,533 services, including health examinations and consultations; and the out-patient division provided 6,871 treatments.

THE oldest unified student health service in the state is that of Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. In 1926 the service at Iowa State was functioning as an integrated unit. From that date to the present time the student health service has maintained a cost-accounting system so that the various units of expense are accounted for, including allocation for light, heat, and personnel. This is rather unusual because the health service at Iowa State, as at the other two institutions, cuts athwart the instructional service. For the most part, the same personnel and equipment are used for the two functions. Iowa State College is probably one of the few educational institutions that attempts to determine the complete cost of the student health service.

Student health service is administered from the Department of Hygiene; the personnel of both services is used in common as much as possible. The service is organized solely to enhance student health both by means of instruction and through the more direct means of medical and surgical treatment. A public-health committee is the regulatory body for the student health service, and is selected from the departments intimately concerned with hygiene.

The student health service may be divided into six parts, namely: medical examinations, health conferences, hospital and dispensary service, dietetics, student environment, and dental hygiene. All new students, before being admitted, are required to provide a statement of health history on a form furnished by the registrar.

Upon admission they [students] are given an examination by the medical staff. This is followed each subsequent year by additional examinations. Before registering in a higher class and before graduation each student must have on file in the registrar's office a statement from the health service that such examination has been made.

A unique feature of the health service is the provision for a conference following the examination and after treatment at the dispensary. The conference affords an opportunity to impress upon the student the need for remedial health measures. The director's report indicates the number of students availing themselves of these conferences have increased from 6,400 in the school year 1928-29 to 7,269 in the year 1930-31. Moreover, 637 men students out of 1,042 entering during the fall of 1930 were required to appear for conferences on account of some physical defect or health impairment that required further examination, advice, or treatment. Many of these could be adequately cared for through a single conference. Some, however, required a series of conferences, and 135 were kept under health supervision the entire year.

The students also receive dental

examinations as well as physical examinations. Each student is given a card at the time of the examination, showing the condition of the teeth, and is urged to go to a dentist to have the necessary reconstruction done. The dentist is requested to sign the card when the repairs have been made. The card is then returned by the student to the student health service. This procedure gives an opportunity to check up on the results. The examination of Juniors reveals, according to the director's report, that 63 per cent show improved conditions over those of their freshmen year.

Examinations of students disclose that certain malconditions are probably due to improper diet. A dietitian prescribes and prepares diets to improve the health of such students. The out-patient special dining room has usually had its full quota of these students. Many of these, the director states, are diabetics for whom special diet is necessary until their dietary limits can be safely determined and proper instruction given. Dietary supervision is given a group of girls in one of the women's dormitories. These are cases of either underweight or overweight that require something other than regular dining-room diet.

An inspectional service is administered by the student health service. This inspectional service includes rooming houses, dining rooms, and any other place that may need sanitary control to prevent disease.

Medical and surgical services are available for ill and injured students. The students are treated at the dis-

pensary for minor ills or injuries, but the more serious cases are sent to the hospital. In case a student is taken to the hospital for treatment, the first three days' service is furnished without cost. For service in excess of three days a fee of \$2.00 is charged for each additional day to cover the expense of light, heat, board, and room. When a major operation is necessary, a consultation is held with the parents of the student to give them an opportunity to select a surgeon. Since the staff does not maintain a surgeon it is necessary to secure one from some other source.

STUDENT health service in Iowa colleges appears to be conditioned by the size and character of the

institution and the length of time the unified service has been active. An integrated health service is assured with greater difficulty in those colleges that do not have well-developed departments of hygiene, because there is less opportunity for sharing the personnel for the instruction and health service. Furthermore, there is not enough service, under such circumstances, to warrant having a full-time health officer in charge of each division of a student-health department. It appears that the better student-health departments grow out of well-developed departments of hygiene. When the services are once integrated, the organization becomes responsible, and the services tend to be more comprehensive. [Vol. IV, No. 9]





A Study of the Class Period

By J. B. PAUL

Learning as It Is Influenced by the Length of Class Period

WHAT is the prevailing practice today in our leading colleges and universities in the matter of length of class period and length of interval between class periods? How does a class period of fifty-five minutes on the college level compare in effectiveness for learning with a thirty-minute period? The present study was undertaken for the purpose of obtaining some light, if possible, on these questions.¹

From replies received from one hundred of our leading colleges and universities the following conclusions may be drawn concerning the present practice in the length of class periods and the intervals between them:

1. The class period ranges from fifty to fifty-five minutes in length in 93 per cent of the institutions which replied.
2. The number of minutes including the class period and the interval between class periods is sixty in 86 per cent of the institutions. It would appear that in these institutions the length of the class period is influenced by the fact that there are sixty minutes in an hour.
3. One of the ten institutions that have changed the length of class period in

the last ten years reports a period of one hundred twenty minutes (Rollins College). This is a marked deviation from common practice. The registrar reports that he does not deem it advisable to change the present length of period. The other nine institutions report a class period of conventional length, ranging from fifty to fifty-five minutes.

4. There seems to be general satisfaction with the present lengths of class periods, but none of the reports indicate that there has been any experimental work done for the purpose of determining the optimal length of class.
5. The present lengths of class periods seem to be based on custom, the size of campus, and the fact that there are sixty minutes in an hour.

Considerable experimental work has been done under laboratory conditions in comparing practice periods of different lengths and different frequencies to determine the time conditions under which learning will take place most economically and effectively. From the pioneer work of Ebbinghaus in 1885 down to the present time, one principle seems to run through practically all of these studies; namely, within the limits of the experiments the shorter practice periods are the more economical for learning. Apparently nothing has

¹This experiment is reported in greater detail in "A Study of the Relative Effectiveness for Learning on the College Level of a Fifty-five and a Thirty Minute Class Period" by J. B. Paul, a Doctor's thesis on file in the library of the University of Wisconsin (1931).

been done on the college level to find which lengths of class period are most economical for learning.

THE experimental investigation of the relative effectiveness of class periods of fifty-five and of thirty minutes, such as is reported in this study, is in some ways essentially different from the earlier experimental work. In the first place, in the earlier studies the tasks to be performed were in most cases relatively simple—memorizing non-sense syllables, performing certain arithmetic computations, transcribing letters into numbers in accordance with a given key, and the like—as contrasted with the materials to be learned in such a college course as Psychology I or Elements of Geography. In the second place, in so far as the earlier studies are concerned, all of the conscious voluntary attempts at learning presumably took place during the practice periods, while in the present study the important function of the class periods was to motivate and stimulate the further learning of the student. A large part of the conscious voluntary attempt at learning presumably took place outside of the class periods. In the third place, in most of the earlier studies the total amount of time spent in practice was kept constant, and the variables were the length and the frequency of practice periods and the intervals between practice periods. In the present study, the length of the class period was changed, and this change carried with it a change in the total amount of time spent in class. The frequency of class periods and the

interval between class periods were kept constant.

The experimental study being reported in this article was conducted in the courses in history and principles of education, psychology, and first courses in geography and in English. Three departments of the college and four different instructors engaged in the experiment. These classes normally met for a period of fifty-five minutes, five times a week, during twelve weeks, and the courses carried five hours of college credit.

A control and an experimental section in each course were formed. The control and experimental sections consisted of matched groups made up of 120 paired individuals; namely, each person in the experimental section was paired with a person in the control section whose scores on certain placement tests were similar.² The control sections met each day for fifty-five minutes, while the experimental sections met daily for a period of thirty minutes. In each of the four courses a combined lecture and discussion method was used. It was not possible to discuss the assignments as thoroughly in the thirty-minute period as in the fifty-five-minute period.

The assignments were definite and specific and were uniform for the two groups. For the purpose of measuring the amount learned series of

²The tests used as the basis of the pairing were: in the course entitled History and Principles of Education the combined score made on the Iowa High School Content Examination and the Iowa English Training Test was used as a basis for pairing. In Psychology I, the score made on the Nelson-Denny Reading Test; in Elements of Geography, the score made on the Iowa High School Content Examination; and in English I the weighted score made on the Wisconsin Language Test and the Iowa State Teachers College English Test.

objective tests were devised for use in these particular courses.³ A comparison of the amount learned by the control and experimental groups, as measured by these tests, is presented in Table I.

The greater gain was made by the control group in each of the four subjects. In only one course (Elements of Geography I) was the difference great enough to be considered statistically significant. The greater dif-

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF THE GROUPS

| | Mean Pre-test | Mean Final Test | Mean Gain | Sigma Gain |
|--------------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|--------------|---------------|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| History and Principles of Education: | | | | |
| Control..... | 69 | 161 | 92 | 25.3 |
| Experimental.... | 81 | 168 | 87 | 29.5 |
| Psychology I: | | | | |
| Control..... | 92 | 150 | 58 | 17.0 |
| Experimental.... | 90 | 147 | 57 | 17.6 |
| Elements of Geography I: | | | | |
| Control..... | 53 | 164 | 111 | 22.6 |
| Experimental.... | 56 | 153 | 96 | 20.1 |
| English I: | | | | |
| Control..... | 228 | 276 | 48 | 19.5 |
| Experimental.... | 227 | 268 | 41 | 19.9 |

ference in the amount learned by control and experimental groups in geography may be partly accounted for by the fact that the class period was not devoted to merely an interpretative discussion of the materials assigned to be read. It was concerned also with the application of the principles derived from the study of the assignment to concrete situations. Even though the differences are small,

³These tests have a reliability ranging from .90±.02 to .93±.01.

the fact that the control group made the greater gains in all cases would indicate that the class period of fifty-five minutes resulted in a greater amount of learning.

The crucial question, however, is as to which of the lengths of class period is the more economical for learning. A comparison of the amount learned by the two groups in terms of sigma gains reveals that while the control group had a class period that was 83 per cent longer than the experimental group, the students learned 8 per cent more, or it may be said that while the experimental group had a class period 46 per cent shorter than the control group, the members learned 8 per cent less. The objection may be raised that the shorter class period is really uneconomical since the student may find it necessary to spend much more time in working out his assignments. I am acquainted, however, with very few college teachers who would object to a procedure because it requires more effective work on the part of the student. A majority of the members of the experimental groups indicated that they preferred the shorter class period, although they found it necessary to work out the assignment more carefully on account of the short period. It is apparent that the shorter period is more economical viewed from the standpoint of institutional cost. The four instructors indicated their preference for the longer class period, while 58 per cent of the students indicated a preference for the shorter period. The limited data obtained in this study from upperclassmen tend to arouse the shadow of a suspicion that

upperclassmen have learned to profit more from the recitation than have Freshmen, but that they have not learned to master assignments when placed on their own resources.

Too few cases are involved to warrant any definite conclusion concerning the effect of the experimental factor (the short class period) on the amount learned by the high, middle, and low thirds of the classes based on

placement-test scores. It would appear from the limited data at hand that the short class period is a slight advantage to the high third and a slight disadvantage to the low third.

This study raises the question as to whether the conventional length of class period is the most effective length of period. Will careful experimental investigation result in justifying present practice?

[Vol. IV, No. 9]

Teacher Tenure

By NORMAN MACD. GRIER

STATISTICS of the faculties of 106 widely distributed liberal-arts colleges, including accredited and non-accredited institutions, coeducational institutions, colleges for men, and colleges for women, when compared with data furnished by the United States Bureau of Education indicate that there has been a continuous increase in the number of women faculty members during the past thirty years. Since standardized salary scales in these institutions are rare, it is thought that this increase may operate toward a relative elimination of men as teachers through the reduction of salary levels, and hence have a conceivable relationship to the problems of tenure. Under more normal economic conditions, many of the best men and women will be discouraged from entering liberal-arts teaching, and hence the quality of work given will be affected.

Within the limits of this study, nearly half the teachers in the colleges of the Middle Atlantic and Southern states were women, whereas two-thirds were men in the New England, North Central, and Northwestern states. Women were found to comprise 77 per cent of the faculties of colleges for women, a point which has been the subject of comment by students of social science. On the other hand, they comprise less than 2 per cent of the staffs of colleges for men, where there is apparently a greater stability of the staff, as reflected in the greater average period of service per faculty member.

Further analysis of the data examined showed that the liberal-arts college of today is typically coeducational. Fifty-six per cent of the faculty members considered are within their first 5 years of service; 22 per cent, 10 years; 9 per cent, 15 years; 5 per

cent, 20 years; 3 per cent, 25 years; 2 per cent, 30 years; 1 per cent, 35 years; 1 per cent, 40 years. While the average period of service per faculty member is 7.6 years, by far the most prominent points of the curve are for one and two years.

It is interesting to note that at one highly regarded institution, widely known for its policy of early promoting its instructors, the average period of service is 10.6 years, with a corresponding reduction in the percentages which may be attributed to turnover. The evidence available indicated that a low student-load, high salary scale, or both, did not appreciably increase the period of service of teachers, a conclusion being that "personalities are a part of every institution" if the personnel is to remain stable.

The foregoing computations suggest an interesting picture as to the rapidity with which a college faculty is replaced, especially in the younger groups, whose enthusiasm may best be capitalized as the college struggles to adapt itself to the times. Of the 8 per cent of the teachers who serve more than 20 years, less than 25 per cent are women. One professor with 62 years of service held the record.

An investigation of this kind made some years hence would most likely show larger percentages of the faculty that have taught longer into the rest period of their professional life due to the loss of savings, depreciation of investments, and the like. Data from the Carnegie Foundation indicate that at present the retirement age, which was at first seventy, is now sixty-eight. Based on age alone, pro-

fessors at institutions on the associated list in 1931, retired after an average period of service of 34.12 years as compared with 28.54 years on the basis of service, and after 30.97 years on the basis of disability. Recommendations concerning tenure provisions should evidently take into account the situation as regards the retirement of teachers, the crystallized attitude frequently found among older members of a faculty which often is concerned in the turnover among the younger members.

Differing economic and social backgrounds apparently have their effect upon the period of service of these liberal-arts faculties. Within the limits of this study, fewer teachers were in their first ten years of service in the New England and North Central regions than in other geographical parts of the country. If this be an index of the stability of tenure, such conditions would seem to be more favorable for liberal-arts teachers in these regions. Correlating with other known conditions, the first is recognized as the center of the older educational idealism; the other, for the most thorough accrediting standards in the United States.

A wider adoption of personnel procedures in colleges is recommended as a step toward the solution of tenure problems, while the effect of the recommendations concerning tenure, sponsored by the Association of American Colleges, Association of American Universities, and the American Association of University Professors has been such as to increase the average period of service in institutions where these provisions have been adopted.

• With the Technicians •

Athletics and Scholarship

Another by-product of the study of Pennsylvania colleges made by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching is the study by John Andrew Cooper entitled "The Effect of Participation in Athletics upon Scholarship Measured by Achievement Tests," the report of which Mr. Cooper submitted to Pennsylvania State College as his Doctor's thesis. The records on the Carnegie Foundation Achievement Tests made by the Seniors in seven colleges—Allegheny, Bucknell, Carnegie Institute, Gettysburg, Lehigh, Muhlenberg, and Pennsylvania State—were used in the comparisons of several paired groups—athletes, non-athletes, and extra-curricular men. An "athlete" was defined as any male undergraduate who was a member of a varsity freshman athletic team; an "extra-curricular man" was an undergraduate who took part in either athletics or other extra-curricular activities. Mr. Cooper reports that the non-athletic group showed slight superiority but greater variability in achievement than did the athletic group.

Measuring Efficiency of Teaching

Teaching ability is highly specialized when judged by certain aspects of student development is the conclusion which was reached by three teachers

of educational psychology at Pennsylvania State College who co-operated in a study to measure the relative efficiency of their teaching, for each teacher occupied the highest, the middle, and the lowest place in some one of the bases of comparison.¹ The basic assumption behind the statistical comparisons was that the most effective instructor was the one who was responsible for the greatest number of desirable changes in his students. The three instructors taught classes enrolling 55, 59, and 105 students. The efficiency of teaching was objectively measured by administering to their students tests of achievement, attitudes, and personality traits at both the beginning and the end of the semester. Individuals in all three groups were paired according to pre-test scores in each measure, and the differences in average gain under the various teachers was determined. After the application of a system of weighting to the objective results according to the importance of the outcomes, an order of efficiency was finally determined.

Each teacher considered showed some superiority where his colleagues exhibited relative weaknesses, implying a high degree of specificity in pedagogical talent. Teaching ability apparently can be measured if one accepts the propriety of summing separate excellences with the

¹Adapted from *Measuring Teaching Efficiency among College Instructors*, by George W. Hartmann. New York: Columbia University, 1933. (Archives of Psychology, No. 154).

result that a mean plane of instructional skill emerges. The best teacher will then be the one with the highest average level of success in producing an array of valuable personality modifications in the human beings under his influence. He can be identified with reasonable accuracy by means of an extensive test program wherever he is teaching a course or subject in which other instructors are engaged.

Discussing the accuracy of measurements of teaching efficiency, Mr. Hartmann says:

A reasonable claim would be that a small number of teachers of the same subject can be fairly precisely arranged in a serial order of merit, but that the exact magnitude of the gap between any two individual positions can be only roughly approximated. Nevertheless, to be able to rank teachers on the basis of objectively ascertainable changes in their pupils by procedures which take account of *all* educational objectives is eminently worth while. The prediction is not unwarranted that the most promising future methods of investigating instructional skill will attempt to determine the amount and kind of personality modifications transpiring between initial and final determinations of status when subject to a given variety of human environment. The testing program should undoubtedly be expanded just as surely as the mathematical technique ought to be refined, but the broad outlines of this type of experimental approach ought to be preserved until supplanted by a more direct measuring instrument.

Students learn more through three lectures alone or through two lectures with one recitation a week than by three recitation periods only is the conclusion of three experiments which have been carried on

under the direction of Mr. H. H. Remmers at Purdue University.² The variable, the method of instruction, has been studied using a total of 1,134 students in the beginning course in psychology. Mr. Remmers finds by use of a pairing technique that the learning of able students is not perceptibly affected by the method of instruction, while the learning of less able students is at least equal under the lecture method to that of their paired correspondents under the recitation method. A variety of testing combinations—pre-tests, mid-terms, final tests, and tests given at intervals after the course was completed—were used in this series of studies to measure average achievement. The only objective tested was the acquisition of information, although other desirable outcomes of instruction may be more adequately realized by methods of instruction other than the lecture method. The bearing of this investigation upon the class-size problem is discussed by Mr. Remmers elsewhere in this issue (*see* pages 468–70).

Introductory Courses in Sociology

The need of a body of fundamental sociological ideas, the absence of a common terminology, the indefiniteness of objectives, and the wide dispersion of authorities referred to characterize the courses in introductory sociology conclude the members of the committee appointed by

²Remmers, H. H. *Learning, Effort, and Attitudes As Affected by Three Methods of Instruction in Elementary Psychology*. Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University, 1933. (Studies in Higher Education, XXI).

the American Sociological Association to study the present status and content of these courses. Collegiate institutions were classified into eight groups—state universities, large endowed universities, independent and Protestant endowed colleges, Catholic colleges, women's colleges, teachers' colleges, Negro colleges, and land-grant institutions. A questionnaire was sent to all institutions of higher education, and sectional reports prepared by various committee members were published in the September issue of the *Journal of Educational Sociology*.

From an analysis of the replies to the questionnaire and with the advice of thirty-two experienced teachers of sociology the committee recommends that any introductory course in sociology consist of from 55 to 60 class periods and that 70 per cent of the time be devoted to the following topics: groups and group life, the fundamental social processes, man's cultural heritage, social organization and structure, social change, and society and the individual. In recommending these topics the committee has three purposes in mind, to reduce the great variation in the training of students in introductory sociology, to advance the integration of the fundamental ideas of sociology, and "to bring to sharper focus the objective of developing sociology as a definite scientific discipline."

Class-Size in Zoölogy

What differences in accomplishment will be found between large and small classes if the large classes

consist of approximately one hundred students and the small classes of thirty to thirty-five students, if attempts are made to adapt the teaching procedures to the size of the class, and if accomplishment is measured in terms of certain important aims of instruction, and not restricted to the measurement of information only? An investigation of this problem was undertaken by Louis E. Rath³ using the elementary courses in zoölogy at Ohio State University during two quarters of 1933,⁴ because objective examinations had been constructed for these courses which tested several of the important aims of the course, and because the course of study, the teaching methods, the tests, the sequence of topics, and the materials used by teachers and students, all had been developed with certain teaching objectives in mind.

Each instructor during the course of the experiment taught one class of one hundred students and two small sections of thirty-five students each day, five days each week. Each instructor used the methods which he thought most effective for instruction with each size of class. The students were assigned to the various sections by the assistants of the University registrar without consideration of the study.

Pre-tests covering certain important objectives of the course were given during the first week of each quarter. At the close of the third week of instruction a rather com-

³"Class-Size in the Department of Zoology." 1933. A Doctor's thesis on file in the library of the Ohio State University.

⁴The work of the Winter Quarter was directed by Mr. J. W. Price and of the Spring Quarter, by Mr. Donald Borrer.

prehensive first mid-term examination was administered. Three weeks before the close of the quarter a second mid-term examination, covering the same objectives, was given. The final examinations were given during the last week of the course. The results of these examinations served as data for determining the effectiveness of attaining the objectives of the course.

Two important objectives were measured: the acquisition of zoological information and the development of the ability of the students to use scientific method. The latter objective embraced the application of principles of zoology to situations new to the students, and the drawing of reasonable inferences from experimental situations which were new to the students.

Originally the experimental procedure called for the pairing of students on factors which were thought to be important in the achievement of the objectives. When the examination results were studied, however, it was found that linear relationships obtained between a number of the variables and final achievement, and that the coefficients of correlation were unusually high. Using the results to predict the achievement of information for the students in the large class, a multiple-correlation coefficient of .86 was found, when only two factors—the information scores made on the first mid-term examination and the point-hour ratio made by each student during his previous quarter's residence in the University—were used in prediction.

With respect to the imparting of

information which is to be remembered by the students the large classes, taught by the best teaching procedures known to these instructors, were as effective as small classes in which teaching procedures employed were those thought to be effective for small classes. The differences were not statistically significant.

During the second quarter the objective of information was divided into two parts: information that might be obtained from lectures and readings and information that seemed to require some familiarity with and study of animals themselves. The procedures for predicting final results, previously described, were applied again to achievement of this objective. The results favored the small classes but were not large enough to be of statistical significance.

Again, in the objective, the development of the ability to use the scientific method, no significant differences were found between large and small sections in both quarters of the work. What differences were obtained were slightly to the advantage of the large sections, but they were far from significant.

Three types of analyses of the data were made. When the average was used as the measure of comparison, no statistically significant differences were revealed between the accomplishment of the large and small sections.

When the proportions of students achieving more than prediction and less than prediction were studied, it was found that practically no differences were obtained. As many students would have had higher scores

predicted for them than they actually did make had they been members of a large class, as there were students who made better scores in the small class than was predicted for them had they been members of a large class.

When individual results were studied, few cases were found where significant differences existed between the scores actually made and the predicted scores.

More students in the large section (both in absolute numbers and relatively to the size of classes) had conferences with the instructors than students of the small classes. It may be that students in large classes demand more of an instructor's time for making adjustments to the class situations. These conclusions may have great significance in the determination of policies dealing with teaching-load. If more student-teacher conferences are necessary in large classes time must be provided for them and the teaching-load, perhaps, lightened.

The zoölogy students received instruction in dissection, in the use of the microscope and other laboratory appliances, in the handling and observation of live and preserved materials

in the laboratory, and in the observation of animals and in the study of animals in their natural environment through the device of field trips. In the present investigation all of these advantages favored the small classes.

Not all of the important aims of instruction were measured in this experiment. With respect to some aims no differences were found in the actual achievement in small classes and the achievement predicted for the same students had they been members of large classes. With respect to other aims of instruction the advantages favored the small classes because of the difficulty of formulating techniques for developing these objectives with large groups of students. The conclusions of this investigation indicate, however, that for these two instructors concerned no significant differences were revealed between the accomplishment of the small classes, and the predicted accomplishment had the same students been members of large classes. The experiment is being continued in order to get more accurate measures of accomplishments on certain objectives and in order to devise better teaching procedures in both classes.

• The Reporter •

A FIRE on October 20, which caused an estimated damage of \$1,000,000 and almost wiped out St. Joseph's University at Memramcook, New Brunswick, left only the new chapel, the skating rink, and the gymnasium. The three hundred students of the University were in the chapel when the fire broke out, which burned the main building and "old university" unit to the ground.

AFTER an interim of administration of two and one-half years, Mr. John Lloyd Newcomb, dean of the College of Engineering, and for the past two years acting president of the University of Virginia, was, on October 1, elected president.

FRESHMEN at Rollins College are being required this year to take the matriculation oath which was adopted by all students last year. It is similar to the old Athenian oath taken by students upon entering civic life.

REFUSING to resign, President Walter Scott Athearn, of Butler University, Indianapolis, was dismissed by the Board of Trustees on October 30. Dean James W. Putnam was named acting president to succeed Mr. Athearn. "I decline to resign," wrote Mr. Athearn, "and accept my discharge without a hearing in the hope that at some future time I may learn the reasons for this unusual procedure." Mr. Athearn came to

Butler in 1931 from Boston University, where he was dean of the School of Religious Education and Social Service.

GIFTS to institutions of higher education during the past few weeks include the following: \$900,000 to Princeton University from the will of John B. Anderson, of Madison, New Jersey, the principle to come to the University after the death of his immediate family; \$200,000 to Pikeville College under the will of Mrs. Mary E. Wickham; \$91,065 to Wellesley College under the will of Mrs. Sara Teasdale Filsinger, poet, who died last January.

BECAUSE football "did not pay at Wilmington College," President Collins has announced a new athletic program which abandons football and substitutes archery, horseback riding, tennis, and even horseshoe pitching. Basketball is the favored sport, but many proponents of football assert that the enrollment drop of 50 per cent at Wilmington is due to the abandonment of this sport.

As a part of the plan to co-ordinate undergraduate social clubs and fraternities, the authorities of Yale University have taken over two club buildings. The Cloister, the clubhouse of the Book and Snake Society, was given to the University about the middle of October; and the Colony,

the clubhouse of the Berzelius Society, has been sold by the Berzelius Trust Association to the University for a reported price of \$105,000. For the present, members of the societies will continue to live in their houses, but they are expected to reside eventually in the new residential colleges. Both organizations are retaining their "tombs" or buildings in which fraternity meetings are held.

WHEN German universities opened on November 1, Jewish students were required to obtain special permits to gain entrance to classes. Berlin University issued the following statement: "Non-Aryan students are to assemble in the auditorium for the purpose of having their membership books stamped. Unless such stamps are procured none will be permitted to register for lectures." Nazi students are agitating a nation-wide endeavor to re-examine, and in some cases withdraw, the honorary degrees conferred by German universities during the days of the republic from 1918 to 1932.

FOR the fifth consecutive year the department of art and architecture at the University of Oregon has been given a grant by the Carnegie Corporation for the financing of its art center. The grant amounts to \$6,750, and has been made at the recommendation of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture.

SPEAKING early in November at St. Louis, during an alumni dinner of seven eastern colleges for women, Walter Lippmann observed that thirty

times as much money was given to men's colleges and universities in 1932 as to institutions for women. He also remarked:

The time has come to build for the future the things that are permanent, and to act confidently on the assumption that America is rich enough to support a brilliant and enduring civilization. . . . You cannot therefore suspend higher education because it is temporarily inconvenient to pay for it. It is not something you can bottle and put away.

A RECENT survey, published by the United States Office of Education, of 181 privately controlled colleges and universities and 65 public institutions, indicates that in the former 1,130 instructors or 7.9 per cent have been dropped during the past three years, as against 899 or 6.9 per cent from the latter. A third of the private institutions, however, report no teachers dropped on account of the depression, while only a quarter of the public institutions make a similar report.

THE Harvard School of City Planning is this year offering a course entitled "National and State Planning" which is designed to acquaint students with the social and economic needs of the country and the importance of long-range planning for physical development. The National Recovery Act will be discussed in relationship to planning, and public-works projects for the relief of unemployment in times of depression such as the Tennessee Valley project.

Two committees, one representing the University of Wisconsin faculty and another representing the Wis-

consin Alumni Association, have been appointed to bring to the people of the state a clearer interpretation of the relationship between the University and the citizens of the state. The work of the committees will be so organized as to function in all parts of the state.

THE Women's Self-Government Association of the University of Wisconsin, early in November, adopted a resolution denouncing as faked the pictures which were recently published in Wisconsin newspapers, showing Wisconsin women students sipping beer in their rooms in University women's dormitories. The resolution pointed out that the pictures were taken in a commercial photographic studio, and that there is no truth in the statements that beer has been delivered to women's dormitories.

Two hundred undergraduates of Columbia University representing many groups of students announced early in November their stand against war and their conviction that they would not go to war under any circumstances. This announcement, which follows a year after the somewhat similar statement by the large number of students at Oxford University, has been harshly received by the press.

LATE in October the students of Puerto Rico University went on strike, protesting the appointment of Rafael Alonso Torres as a trustee. They demanded his resignation before resuming classes. Their protest was successful: Senor Torres resigned and

the students on November 6 returned to their academic work. Meanwhile, Senor Torres' supporters in the socialist party have decided to make an issue before the next legislature of the educational system, insisting upon its liberalization to the masses. Because of the stand of his party, Senor Torres was willing to resign.

THE dates of December 10-15 have been set for the eleventh session of the annual Institute of World Affairs, under the auspices of the University of Southern California, at the Riverside Mission Inn. The program will be devoted to current international problems, such as revolutionary movements, national trends, stabilization of world currencies, tariff adjustments, commodity control, territorial disputes, propaganda in international affairs, and foreign policies.

SPEAKING before the Medical Education Commission of the Association of American Medical Colleges, held at Rochester, Minnesota, at the end of October, Dean Rappleye, of the Columbia University College of Physicians and Surgeons, predicted that there would be a continued surplus in the ratio of physicians to the general public through 1950. Dean Rappleye proposed that the standards of the medical profession should be raised and that students should be diverted into other fields where medical education is of value, particularly to the field of public health.

WIDER use of methods of teaching, such as honors courses, segregating according to ability and compre-

hensive examinations, so as to give superior students more opportunity to gain a broader and at the same time more efficient education is strongly urged in a bulletin, *Studies to Determine Relative Achievement of Students at Different Potentiality Levels*, just issued by the University of Oregon. The study, one of a series sponsored by the university committee on improvement of college teaching, was written by Mr. Ralph W. Leighton, executive secretary of the University Bureau of Research.

THE Chancellor of the Hebrew University at Jerusalem announces an expanded program which will provide fourteen posts for former German professors who have been forced to leave Germany because of the Nazi interdict against Jews. More than \$60,000 will be devoted, during the present academic year, to the establishment of these German educators in Palestine. Contributions for this work have come largely from American Jewish organizations, and one large gift has come from Mrs. Felix M. Warburg who has set up a \$100,000 fund in memory of her parents. A fund of \$15,000 has also been received from the Central British Fund for German Jewry.

AT THE annual meeting held early in November in New York City, the Association of Urban Universities listened to the suggestion of Dean Rufus D. Smith, of Washington Square College of New York University, that Federal aid to education through national tuition scholarships be provided by the Federal Govern-

ment. Dean Smith supported his proposal as follows:

Would it be possible and better to devise a scheme of national tuition scholarships for students of very high intellectual ability, such tuition to be paid to accredited institutions so as to keep instructors employed? Would such a plan be less expensive to the government than the conservation camps, which, I understand, now cost \$1,000 an individual boy. A year's tuition would average \$250 to \$400. This would not be relief, but it would be conservation of youth and, indirectly, relief for teachers. A few of our institutions have been forced to dismiss instructors, in one case 15 per cent. How many more will be forced to do likewise this year and next through sheer necessity?

Henry G. Arnsdorf, registrar of New York University, reported that

men have, on the whole, shown greater persistency to remain in college, for the percentage of men in the student bodies increased from 64.1 in 1929 to 67.8 in 1933, while there was a corresponding loss from 35.8 to 32.1 in the proportion of women students enrolled.

Mr. Arnsdorf said the figures did not bear out the fear expressed a few years ago that depression psychology might lead students away from the cultural to the so-called "bread-and-butter" courses. The aggregate enrollment for the liberal-arts colleges showed slight gains up to 1931, remained about the same last year, and dropped only 2.9 per cent this year. The figures on the graduate schools were about the same, he added, while schools of commerce and business administration, schools of education, teachers' colleges, schools

of law, fine arts, pharmacy, and engineering had all shown larger losses. Schools of nursing and of household arts had held their students to remarkable degrees, and medical and dental colleges had not only shown immunity from the ravages of the economic depression, but seemed to be the only colleges in the whole administrative set-up which had shown any gain at all in their student enrollments.

THE Ohio State University, late in October, published a monograph entitled *An Adventure in Education for the Unemployed*, a report and comment upon the two six-weeks sessions of its Emergency School held during the spring and summer quarters of 1933. The monograph is 45 printed pages, and copies may be obtained by writing the University.

THE following dates have been set by academic and professional organizations for their annual meetings to be held during the month of December and succeeding months:

ASSOCIATIONS MEETING DURING
DECEMBER, 1933, AND THE
EARLY MONTHS OF 1934

| | |
|---|----------------------|
| American Association for the Advancement of Science | |
| Boston | December 29 |
| American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism | |
| Chicago | December 28 |
| American Association of Teachers Colleges | |
| Cleveland | February 24, March 1 |
| American Association of Teachers of Italian | |
| St. Louis | December 29 |

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| | | |
|---|-------------------|-------------------------|
| American Association of Teachers of Journalism | Chicago | probably December 28-30 |
| American Association of University Instructors in Accounting | Philadelphia | December 27-29 |
| American Economic Association | Philadelphia | December 27-29 |
| American Historical Association | Urbana, Ill. | December 27-29 |
| American Philological Association | Washington, D. C. | December 27-29 |
| American Political Science Association | Philadelphia | December 27 |
| American Statistical Association | Philadelphia | December 27-29 |
| American Student Health Association | Chicago | December 28-30 |
| Association of American Geographers | Evanston, Ill. | December 26-28 |
| Association of American Law Schools | Chicago | December 28-30 |
| Botanical Society of America | Boston | December 26-30 |
| Geological Society of America | Chicago | December 28-30 |
| Mathematical Association of America (Inc.) | Cambridge, Mass. | December 29-30 |
| Modern Language Association of America | St. Louis | December 28-30 |
| National Association of Teachers of Law in Collegiate Schools of Business | Philadelphia | December 27-29 |
| National Association of Teachers of Marketing and Advertising | Philadelphia | December 27-29 |
| National Association of Teachers of Speech | New York | December 27-29 |
| National Collegiate Athletic Association | Chicago | December 29 |
| National Education Association, Department of Superintendence | Cleveland | February 24-March 1 |
| National Federation of Modern Language Teachers | St. Louis | December 27-28 |
| Society of Directors of Physical Education in College | Chicago | December 27-28 |
| The American Society of Mechanical Engineers | New York | December 4-8 |

• Editorial • Comments •

University Support in Ohio

THE action of the voters of Ohio in reducing the constitutional tax-rate limit on property from fifteen mills to ten mills in the November elections will have a profound influence upon the tax structure of the state in general and upon university appropriations in particular. Heretofore, Ohio's schools and local government agencies have been supported by taxation on local property. Approximately a mere 5 per cent of the money spent for schools has been derived from state revenue, and most of this was expended upon so-called state-aid schools—schools which were paid the difference between the amount raised by the maximum property tax of the district and that needed to run a good school.

The current depression, however, contributed to tax delinquency to such an extent that all local public activities were seriously restricted and progressive contraction has been in evidence for three years. In some localities the reduction of the assessed valuation of property by 20 per cent added pressure to cause further reductions in tax receipts. But these were not enough. The people were tired of paying property taxes and voted as indicated to reduce the tax rate by one-third and the resulting revenues for the support of local public enterprises in like proportion.

This means that a substantial portion of the support of schools and

local governmental activities is shifted from the local unit to the state legislature at Columbus if the activities are to be continued. And since no one can doubt the deep-lying interest of the state of Ohio in education, there is no likelihood that after the present confusion and panic have subsided the amounts raised by the legislature will be increased to equal the amounts which the local districts will no longer raise.

While the public voted to reduce local taxation primarily to ease the property tax, the fundamental principle involved is sound. The state is better able to impose equitable taxes than is the local district. Specifically, a millionaire in a district supports the schools only by the amount of his property taxes. His only property may be a modest home which may be assessed for perhaps \$25,000. He cannot be taxed by the local district for the balance of his wealth. The state, however, is favorably situated to do exactly this through an income tax, a tax on intangibles, or by some other device and can return to the community the amounts so collected.

The Ohio public was educated recently to this point of view by a survey of educational finances sponsored by the governor and subsidized by the Ohio Education Association, which resulted in the so-called "Mort plan," a proposal embodying the principle of increased state support.

This was vigorously discussed in the legislature of 1933. The Mort plan as such was not adopted. But the voters have now made its principle mandatory.

WHAT the effect of this increase in state funds will be upon the appropriations to the five higher institutions is problematical. Some believe that the added burden of local support of schools upon state revenues will reduce the support to the teachers' colleges and universities. Others more validly contend that the

increase in the amounts which must be raised by the state will be so large that the appropriations for higher education will be relatively much less conspicuous than they now are, and will, because of their minuteness, be the more easily obtained. This is the hopeful view of the institutions, and experience in other states tends to support the idea.

In any case the sudden shift in taxation policy, made mandatory by the November elections, compels a radical change in the tax structure of the state.

W.W.C.

..Reviews..

Revelation of a Great Personality

A FEW REMARKS, by *Elmer Ellsworth Brown*. New York: New York University Press, 1933. vii+251 pp. \$2.00.

Chancellor Brown's professional reports and public addresses are introduced to the reader in a felicitous manner by Mr. Kimball, comptroller of New York University. Forcible persuasion is the only begetter of this book, as its author had no thought of formal publication. But perhaps nothing could crown the twenty-two years of magnificent service at New York University better than the appearance of this handsome volume, which contains so much wisdom and wit, and which reveals the personality of the Chancellor so clearly. He is an example of educated common sense.

His training at Illinois State Normal University, at the University of Michigan, and at the University of Halle-Wittenberg (where he took his Doctor's degree) might have fitted him for a scholarly career without making certain his success either as teacher or executive. But native gumption and solid wisdom enlightened by religion gave the proper foundation for the superstructure of learning; and not the least of his natural endowments is a sense of humor, which has served him well in his innumerable contacts with cranks. For the theory-of-education crank is more pernicious than the political or religious freak.

He can make even statistics entertaining. The second chapter, "A Book of Numbers," shows in a highly interesting manner the growth of student attendance in the United States, both in colleges and high schools. Incidentally, this helps to explain why the expenditures of the United States are so much greater than the receipts (in cash). As an appendix to this chapter we find an exceedingly interesting exchange of letters between

Mr. Brown and Sir Michael Sadler, the brilliant Master of University College, Oxford.

The essay "On Urbanity" deals with the specific problems of urban universities—how shall "college life" find any place in such heterogeneity? The quotation from Daniel Defoe (new to me) is illuminating; it is a whole essay in three words. Defoe, speaking of the academies of the English dissenters, said that one of their greatest defects was a "want of conversation." Well, that want is the cause of the new Harkness plan at Harvard and at Yale.

I like very much indeed the address "One and All." And yet I think the interpretation of the parable of the Good Samaritan is wrong; though I found the right one in a conversation with Captain Ludington, of the Great Lakes. If one will consider the parable (St. Luke, Chap. X) one will see that the *neighbor* is the one who *gives* the help, not the one who receives it.

I hope this book may have a wide circulation, because of its educational value and because of its revelation of a great personality.

WILLIAM LYON PHELPS
Yale University

Comenius Americanus

COMENIUS IN ENGLAND, by *Robert Fitzgibbon Young*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1932. 99 pp. \$3.00.

In this carefully edited collection of documents, beautifully printed by the Oxford Press, Mr. Young has provided new and significant material on the life and influence on English-speaking countries of the great Czech educational reformer. The most important is an autobiographical fragment, known only in a single mutilated imprint at the Leningrad Public Library, and here

translated into English for the first time. In this account by the master himself is set forth, in the simple language and unassuming manner that was typical of him, the story of his *Janua Linguarum* coming to the notice of Samuel Hartlib in London; of his sending Hartlib the *Outline of Complete Wisdom*, which was promptly printed to meet the English demand for copies; of his being brought to London by Hartlib and various noble patrons, with the object of founding "a college such as the illustrious Bacon desired, dedicated to all the studies of the world;" of his interview with Bishop Williams, and the movement to obtain a charter for the proposed "Pansophic College" from the Long Parliament; and the "one unhappy day," November 11, 1641, which, "bringing tidings of massacre in Ireland and of outbreak of war there," sent all these great plans to limbo.

The American reader will naturally ask whether this book throws any new light on the question whether Comenius was invited, as Cotton Mather wrote in 1698, to be president of the lately founded Harvard College? It does not. Comenius makes no mention of any such offer. Mr. Young thinks that Comenius' interest in the English colonies was confined to the education of the Indians, and in an appendix he collects all the relevant facts to support that hypothesis. It must be admitted that the collection is not convincing. The only new fact that Mr. Young brings out is a statement in a letter of 1655 from Comenius to his Hungarian patron: "We hope . . . to receive a full account of the progress of our class in America." This probably means that someone had written to Comenius that a school or college in the Colonies was using his new method of teaching Latin. In all probability this was one of the public grammar schools of New England; not Harvard College, whose students were through with "beginning Latin;" nor the Indian College, where there are not known to have been any Indian students before 1661. One of those students (Hiacoomes of the class of 1665) owned a copy of the

Janua, which is still in the Harvard College Library; but Comenius' letter is dated 1655.

The reviewer, who more than once has found reputed yarns of Cotton Mather to be corroborated by good evidence, is inclined to believe that Comenius was at least "approached" for the headship of Harvard in 1641 by John Winthrop, Jr., an overseer of Harvard College who was in London at the time. True, Harvard College in 1641 had a president, Henry Dunster; but there is some reason to believe that when Dunster was appointed president, in 1640, neither he nor those appointing him expected him long to be the head of the College. Dunster himself wrote fourteen years later: "No further care or distraction was imposed on mee or expected from mee but to instruct"; and the title of "president" in most colleges of the University of Cambridge, notably in Dunster's own (Magdalene) was that of the head tutor, not the head of the college, who was generally called "master." It seems reasonable to suppose that when John Winthrop, Jr., went to England in 1641 he was instructed by his fellow overseers to try and induce some prominent educationalist to take charge of the New England college, giving it more "kudos" than the unknown name of Dunster or the equally unknown name of Harvard could possibly afford. To one of Winthrop's advanced views, Comenius would have been just the man for the job, and the collapse of the Pansophic College scheme in 1641 made him "available."

We need not, however, indulge in "might have beens" on colonial education if Comenius had accepted. Before Winthrop made the offer—if he did make it—New England was plunged into the worst economic depression she has ever experienced. It was all she could do to keep alive the feeble lamp of learning on the Charles. Comenius, had he come over, would have been doomed to disappointment and frustration. The incident, if true, is merely one more illustration of the intellectual ambition of the founders of New England, their

amazing courage in setting up on the edge of the wilderness a college with the academic standards of Oxford and Cambridge.

S. E. MORISON
Harvard University

A Book We Have Waited For

VOCATIONS FOR WOMEN, by *Adah Peirce*.
New York: Macmillan Company, 1933.
xvi+329 pp. \$2.00.

"Is there a relationship between the academic life of a student and the vocation which she may enter?" asks the author of this book. She believes there is a relationship and in a skillful way makes comparable groupings between the academic and vocational fields of study.

The introduction gives a background for selection by stimulating two modes of thinking, namely: "The fundamental factors which women have observed in their vocational development" and "the factors that must be considered in choosing a vocation." The modern vocations presented in the following chapters are grouped under Health Professions, Natural Sciences, Business Vocations, Art Vocations, and Social Vocations. In these chapters, with the exception of the one on Natural Sciences, twenty-eight vocations are discussed under the following headings: Contribution to Society, Relation to Other Vocations, Historical Development, Avenues within the Field, Education and Training Required, Personal Qualifications, and Remuneration. The vocations presented in Chapter X, The Natural Sciences, are studied together as the author considers them to be much the same. Those included are anthropology, astronomy, biology, chemistry, geology, mathematics, physics, and psychology. The appendix, which includes "a study of the historical development of the varied vocations in the commercial, industrial, and professional worlds," gives the student a glimpse of the relationship between present and past conditions and is basic for clear thinking.

The organization of the book is excellent. The author has succeeded admir-

ably in selecting as topics for discussion those about which students are most concerned and those which must be studied before a selection of a vocation can be made intelligently. The bibliography at the end of each chapter is well chosen. It comprises not only volumes which have a direct bearing upon the vocation discussed, but also books and pamphlets which have an indirect relationship to the subject.

Miss Peirce has given us a book for which we have long been waiting. She has answered the questions so often asked both by faculty and student, "What factors in the college of liberal arts serve as a background for future vocational interests?" and "How can the student determine her vocational bent from her academic interests?" I recommend the book unreservedly and enthusiastically as a textbook for college students and also as one to be used in reference reading by functionaries who advise the individual student.

MABELLE B. BLAKE
Chicago Teachers College

University of Chicago Survey

THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES, by *M. Llewellyn Raney*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. xvi+250 pp. (University of Chicago Survey, Vol. VII) \$2.50.

This report on the libraries of the University of Chicago by its Director of Libraries is one of a series of twelve volumes presenting the results of a survey of the University carried on from October, 1929, to 1933, under a grant from the General Education Board. The aim of the library survey was to ascertain what additions to the present library resources are necessary to enable the faculties to carry on efficiently their program of teaching and research. The method followed was in large part the assembling and preparation of bibliographies against which the holdings of the library were checked. Special attention was paid to the periodical literature in every field, the master check list of periodical titles con-

taining over thirty-two thousand titles. A central staff, consisting mainly of library workers, was set up to assemble and use the bibliographical apparatus, but the expert judgment as to what material is important in each field was provided by the faculty. Two hundred members of the faculty participated over a period of several months, examining and checking some four hundred selective bibliographies.

Only one of the twenty-three chapters is devoted to administrative matters because the administrative machinery had for two years been under "scrutiny and reconstruction." The effect of the improvements made during these two years, says Mr. Raney, has been "to enrich the staff, to provide two general salary advances, while somewhat reducing the total outlay, and so to lower the ratio of salaries in the total from 71 per cent in 1926, and 63 per cent in 1928 to 51 per cent in 1932." He also claims to have reduced the cost of cataloguing from \$1.30 per volume in 1927-28 to \$.675 in 1931-32, and proposes to adopt such further short cuts and simplifications as may be necessary to reduce the cost to 50 cents a volume.

A summary of the conditions disclosed in all departments shows that the library is in arrears to the extent of 1,405,097 volumes, including 200,324 serials and 512,000 government issues. With these immediately needed additions the library would contain 2,400,000 volumes; that is, it would be larger than the Columbia University Library and would stand in size somewhere between the libraries of Harvard and Yale. Including needs for manuscripts, maps, newspapers, sheet music, and fugitive materials, it is figured that the cost of arrears would amount to \$4,000,000, and it is estimated that after that amount has been expended in bringing the collections up to the necessary level an annual appropriation of \$520,000 for books, binding, and salaries would be required to keep it from slipping back again, all of which is described as a "moderate program."

Mr. Raney merely hints at a new

building program by saying that "the necessity of physical reconstruction is at hand," and has to be met promptly with "no blinking the size of the task, for no library was ever built big enough."

C. C. WILLIAMSON
Columbia University

Historic Landmarks

THE OBLIGATION OF UNIVERSITIES TO THE SOCIAL ORDER, *Addresses and Discussion at a Conference of Universities on the Obligation of the Universities to the Social Order under the auspices of New York University at the Waldorf-Astoria in New York, November 15-17, 1932.* New York: New York University Press, 1932. xlv+503 pp. \$2.00.

JOURNAL OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF A CONVENTION OF LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC GENTLEMEN *held in the Common Council Chamber of the City of New York, October, 1830.* Reproduction of the original edition of 1831. New York: New York University Press, 1933. 286 pp. \$2.00.

Mr. A. E. Taylor, in his rich volume on Plato, tells us "that there can be no doubt that Plato thought his work as the organizer of the Academy much more important than the writing of dialogues." That statement wrenches the habitual judgment. No literature has been more important than the dialogues. How could Plato have held that any other work of his surpassed them in importance? Mr. Taylor's answer is because he was permanently convinced that "the hope of the world depends on the union of political power and genuine science."

That is the conviction that founded the first university, for the Academy was the first university, and the times which called for its founding were not unlike our times. Athens had had her war. It had lasted for twenty-seven years, and she was utterly undone by it. There was but one way out of such disaster, through study to find a way.

There was a singular fitness in New York University's assembling last year a

great congress of the universities to find answers to the question: What ought universities to do now? What help can they bring to this changing world? Hard times search us; they force an examination of faith; they make philosophers of us. We build our house in pain. Is the university here to maintain the *status quo*? Is it here to administer a traditional *corpus* of formulated subject-matter, or is it the first obligation of the universities of a changing world to change?

Human activities of all descriptions shape those who pursue them into two opposed and contending camps, the fundamentalists and the modernists. The theologians illustrate this tendency; they did not invent it, and they have no monopoly of it. The function which a catastrophic time performs for human beings is to convince them that the rules by which they shaped their expectations and thought to live securely are not absolute but require revision. By this token, the university, every university, must be a modernist undertaking changing with a changing world.

But that is only a small part of the story. The university is the memory and the foresight of the world. It must be alive to the drive of change; but it holds that change is orderly and insists that that order is the thing supremely worth studying. What it calls science is just the formulation of that order in the most thoroughlygoingly reliable way in which it can be formulated. What it calls laws are just shorthand statements of findings of what has happened so reliably worked out that they can be lived by, that is, can be used as expectations of what will happen. But since the universe may have more resources than we have thought of in our science, we must ever live in what Charles Lamb called "the twilight of dubiety." That is, wisdom exists by perpetual revision.

There were admirable papers read at that conference. The old controversies were lightly touched upon and the old concepts were made to do duty perhaps with too little Socratic interrogation.

With one speaker's suggestion that as groups "we become victims of certain phrases, words, hallucinations, as truly as individuals do" I note a sympathetic response. To another speaker's declaration of belief that much can be accomplished in the social sciences "to diminish unemployment, stabilize production, improve government and restore law and its administration the age-long primary function of justice" I find myself saying a loud amen! But then I immediately ask: Why was there not more about these things? They were the problems of the social order at that hour as they have been its chief problems ever since. There began to be some of the concreteness and powerful wrestling with the needs of the social order which Plato certainly employed in the Academy, in the discussions of Mr. Lamont, Dean Gay, and Sir Arthur Salter. Dean Gay's recital of the French conception of the university after the Revolution as the function of a progressive civilization to meet all the demands, scientific, cultural, and technical of the existing society, would not have disappointed even the founder of universities. But his declaration "that in the social sciences in the main" the American university "has thus far been content to perform the office of observer and analyst. It has not . . . produced syntheses which have profoundly affected the philosophy and life of the nation" would have profoundly discouraged that great designer of helpfulness to the race. To Sir Arthur Salter it was given to speak energizingly the conclusion of the matter:

The knowledge and outlook which the universities need to give to those in their charge is then, in my view, that which will help the world to carry out the principal tasks which now confront it. These constitute the development of institutions of law and regulation, of professional standards of conduct and of machinery of government, which will in every sphere of human activity safeguard the public interest and so control the thrust of individual effort and competition—like the thrust and interacting pressure of separate granite blocks in a well-planned

bridge—it will strengthen and not destroy the social structure.

It was a fine romantic piety which led the University of New York to republish *The Journal* of the important conference which led to its founding one hundred years ago. No more useful service can be rendered by a university than the setting up of such great historic landmarks as the record of these two conferences, one hundred years apart, make.

ERNEST C. MOORE

University of California at Los Angeles

PROVISION FOR THE INDIVIDUAL IN COLLEGE EDUCATION, *edited by William S. Gray*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. viii+262 pp. (Vol. IV, Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions) \$2.00.

Whoever may be interested in educational problems or in present tendencies in college administration will find much of interest in the volume entitled *Provision for the Individual in College Education*. Since so small a number who are interested can attend a conference where thoughtful consideration is given to such problems, it is a distinct service to make available a report in printed form of the proceedings of such a meeting. Editor Gray and the University of Chicago Press are to be complimented on producing so satisfactory a publication.

The material is arranged, I suppose, in the order in which the papers were presented at the conference. In Part I, dealing with basic facts and assumptions, there is not much that is new if you have read previous articles by President Wilkins, Professor Judd, and Dean Hawkes. Of course, Professor Judd disagrees with the others and seems willing to sacrifice something of accuracy and common sense in order, as he says, "to make the

antithesis as strong as possible." But it is refreshing and profitable to read what he writes. In fact, all three gentlemen do a splendid job of opening the conference.

Part II deals with selecting and advising students; Part III, with curriculum; Part IV, with specific courses and individual needs; Part V, with health, living conditions, and financial aid; and Part VI, with athletics, other activities, and religion.

There is so much that is valuable in all of this that one's interest would constitute the only basis for calling attention to one part rather than another. There is remarkably little duplication of subject-matter in view of the number of different authors, and there is, for the most part, a direct and refreshing approach to each of the problems under discussion. If there is a tendency to over-emphasize technique rather than purpose, there is certainly no apparent inclination to claim more in terms of accomplishments than the results seem to warrant.

The college teacher and the college administrator may justly claim that not enough consideration seems to have been given to the differences in institutions and the problems growing out of such differences. On the whole, the conference, and therefore the report, is rather heavily weighted with the experiences and points of view of representatives of the University of Chicago. Nevertheless, with splendid papers by Dean Johnston, of Minnesota; Frank O. Holt, of Wisconsin; Dean Smiley, of Cornell; and Albert B. Crawford, of Yale, there is considerably more than the diversified opinions of Chicago representatives included. And the diversified opinions from Chicago are as interesting as they are stimulating these days.

L. B. HOPKINS
Wabash College

In the Lay Magazines

"Confessions of a College Teacher,"
Anonymous, *Scribner's*, October, 1933.

This is the story of a professor who was put on the academic "spot." It is the tale, briefly and succinctly told, of his aspirations, his ideals, his love of scholarship, his passion for learning, his sense of justice and fair play, his teaching policies, and it is also the tale of his attempt to bring those things with him into a modern college and his failure.

At the crossroads when he had to decide whether he should fit himself into the system by coddling along the college loafers, passing them from semester to semester in order to keep up the enrollment figures and swell the tuition, being an "intellectual wet-nurse" for the moronic sons of the town's wealthy men, at indeed, the darkest spot in his academic career, his sense of humor, hauled up out of the mire of disuse, comes to his rescue. Soon he is known all over the campus as a having got over his "grouch" and being a "regular guy." As for the side that did not fit he says:

But in the privacy of my own room? Well, that's wretchedly different. What of my love for scholarship? What of my passion for learning? What of the inner citadel where the spirit is enriched by all that is noble? . . . I don't know. I can't answer those questions. I know only that I have a job. That the college officials worry me no more about my teaching. That on the campus I'm a damn fine fellow. . . . And what price all that? I can't say, though my mirror tells me that there are lines in my face; and yesterday a friend said that he thought I looked a little tired.

"The Failure of the Liberal College," by
Albert Levi, *American Scholar*, October,
1933.

Here is an article by a Dartmouth graduate of 1932 which should arouse some controversy. To be sure it is a somewhat unusual article to come from the pen of a "youngster." It is an indictment against the "liberal undergraduate college"—which strives neither to make

THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

a journal of
—investigation
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in the field of
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Edited by
WILLIAM M. RANDALL

Published in
January, April,
July, October

\$5.00 a year

The University of Chicago Press

its graduates research specialists nor immediately fit for professional jobs—for its failure to give to its students a "set of social ideals" which they apply to the "external world."

The failure of the liberal college to do this is largely in the interpretation of the word "liberal" that the ideal of the college is to teach the "best that has been thought and said in the world." Mr. Levi questions this. To what end is knowledge for knowledge's sake? he asks, and yet this is the "distilled essence of the liberal college."

The liberal college fails to establish any link between the fields of thought and action. "It has set up as its purpose the 'to know' without going the necessary additional steps and adding 'to know in order to do and do rightly.'" This fear of having a moral attitude, this narrowing of scholarship has resulted in a generation of bewildered individuals, morally uncertain. It is the fear of indoctrination, the feeling that they must be agnostic in moral attitude that has made

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the colleges ignore the moral challenges that assail the youth of today. The colleges are unwilling to pass on moral issues, they prefer to leave their students to tread the path to disillusionment while they maintain a moral neutrality. In emphasizing knowing, Mr. Levi says the colleges have preferred to ignore doing and so have failed to inculcate in their students a "practical, workable philosophy of values."

"Rapidly Aging Young Man," by Milton S. Mayer, *Forum*, November, 1933.

As brilliant, as blunt, as forward-looking, as outstanding as the man about whom it was written is this article about the boy wonder who was chosen over the heads of myriad gray-haired, platitudinous patriarchs to head the University of Chicago. And head it he has, over uncharted seas and undreamed of vistas of change and reconstruction, through storms of dissention, disagreement, and discontent. He is young, he is handsome, he is unsocial and yet democratic, he is radical and untamed and all the other things that a university professor should not be, and yet he appears to have been successful in effecting not only startling, outward change but profound internal rumbling, discontent, head-scratching, and wonder as to what the young whippersnapper will do next.

This side glance at one of the world's most startling young men is both enlightening and thought-provoking. Here is a man whose name is connected with the year 1940. His ability has been recognized by the very President for whom he openly refused to vote. His appearance, physique, and oratory commend him to the politicians. "But Robert Maynard Hutchins is too busy and too respectful of destiny to hoist a lightning rod for a storm that is at least eight years off."

Mr. Mayer, a product of the University of Chicago, has given the world a delightful commentary on its prize "boy wonder" and its most extraordinary "rapidly aging young man."

MARY MARGARET DODD

The JOURNAL OF
HIGHER EDUCATION



VOLUME IV

1933

PUBLISHED BY
THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

THE JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION is published to serve as the professional journal of the sixty-seven thousand instructors and administrative officers in the colleges, universities, and professional schools of the United States. Among the associate editors there are representatives from every department of academic responsibility in higher education. With their assistance the editorial staff seeks nine times a year to bring to its constituency reports of the most significant investigations in the instructional, administrative, personnel, and curricular problems in all branches of higher education.

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